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GRAMMAR
AND COMPOSITION.
BY E. O. LYTE.

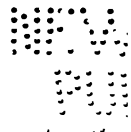
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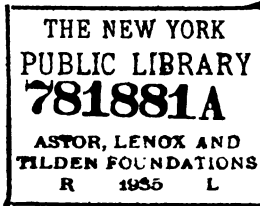
FOR COMMON SCHOOLS.

BY
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PREFACE.

THIS book is designed for pupils that have received some elementary instruction in the use and form of language. In preparing it, the author has endeavored to keep constantly before his mind the needs of the class-room. He has tried to present the subject of Grammar in such a way as to give culture to the powers of inductive and deductive reasoning, and familiarize the pupil with the ways in which thought is expressed, as well as to assist him in learning to use the language correctly. The part devoted to Composition seeks to lead the pupil, step by step, from the expression of his thought in simple sentences to the writing of narratives, essays, etc. Prominence is given to letter-writing, as the written composition of most persons is mainly in the form of letters.

It will be seen that many time-honored topics have been omitted; that the relations and forms of words and sentences are to be learned by studying these relations and forms, rather than by committing definitions about them; and that the subject as a whole has been greatly simplified, without sacrificing system or thoroughness. New terms have in a few instances been introduced, but only to name existing distinctions. No imaginary classes or relations have been invented and labeled: indeed, many subdivisions of subjects and minor distinctions have been omitted, in the belief that they do not come within the scope and design of the work.

Among the features of this work that it is thought will arrest the attention of progressive teachers, the following may be mentioned:

1. The two courses, in which the subject is so presented that but one text-book on technical grammar is needed for the various classes in public schools. (See p. vi.)
2. The general plan of the work, and the development of the subject in accordance with pedagogical principles.
3. The clearness and simplicity of the definitions.

4. The "Inductive Lessons." The principle, Use the inductive method to discover a truth, the deductive to apply it, has been closely adhered to.

5. The forms of analysis and parsing, both oral and written. The oral forms are stripped of useless words, and are expressed in plain sentences, simply and correctly constructed. The advantages of using written forms of analysis are admitted by all good teachers. The forms herein presented, which are essentially the same as those published several years ago in the author's "Forms of Parsing and Analysis," have been fully tested in the class-room, and found to be of great assistance to the pupil in *preparing a lesson*, as well as in reciting it.

6. The treatment of clauses, and especially abridged clauses.

7. The treatment of subordinate conjunctives.

8. The gradation and literary character of the sentences selected for analysis and parsing.

9. The exercises of copying and committing sentences.

10. Part III, "Position of the Parts of Speech."

11. Classification of pronouns, conjunctive pronouns, etc.

12. The treatment of the objective case, of predicate nouns and adjectives, nouns used adverbially, etc.

13. The classes of verbs, the treatment of infinitives and participles, verbals, infinitive and participial moods, etc.

14. "Language Tables," and exercises in correcting errors of speech. Objections have sometimes been made to exercises in "False Syntax" in a work of this kind; but when it is remembered that incorrect modes of expression are learned, not by seeing them, but by hearing them, and that most children come to school with many incorrect expressions already learned, the use of such exercises at once becomes apparent.

15. The Course in Composition, as presented in Part V, including *Letter-Writing, Business Papers*, etc.

The author acknowledges his indebtedness to the works of Maetzner, Morris, Mason, Bain, and others. His thanks are due to the scholars and teachers who kindly examined the "Advance Pages" of this work, printed for private use about two years ago. Their suggestions and criticisms have been of much service to him in the revision of the work.

In conclusion, it is proper to add that the book, both in its general plan and in its details, has been thoroughly tested in common schools and in higher institutions of learning.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, MILLERSVILLE, PA.,
January 19, 1886.

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SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS.

1. Do not have pupils begin the study of grammar before their minds are mature enough to understand the subject.

2. Bear in mind that English grammar is to be studied (1) to give culture to the powers of inductive and deductive reasoning; (2) to assist pupils in learning to read (i. e., in learning to obtain thought from written or printed words combined in sentences); and (3) to assist them in learning to use the language—and especially written language—correctly.

3. In teaching the ideas and truths of grammar, be guided by the following pedagogical principles: (1) From the known to the related unknown. (2) From particulars to the general. (3) Ideas first, then words; thoughts first, then sentences. In teaching the application of these ideas and truths, follow the principle: From the general to the particular.

4. The book is divided into two courses. The first course includes the paragraphs and exercises marked with bold-faced figures.* The second course embraces the contents of the entire book. Pupils who are beginning the study of technical grammar, and those who have but a short time in which to study the subject, should take the first or shorter course. Do not be too particular about having every definition recited *verbatim* in this course. It is much more important that pupils should *understand* what is expressed by the definitions and remarks, than that they should recite them parrot-like, without understanding them.

5. See Special Suggestions to Teachers, Appendix, p. 261.

* The paragraphs and exercises marked with italic letters belong to the second course. They are not necessarily related to the numbered articles after which they are placed. Thus Exercise (c), p. 59, is an exercise belonging to the second course: it is not related to Exercise 214, p. 56. So also, Art. 218 belongs to the first course, while Art. 218 a is part of the second course; but the two articles are not related as principal and subordinate.

GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION.

PART I.

ELEMENTS OF SPEECH.

NOUNS.

Inductive Lesson.—No trees can be seen on Gibraltar, if it is viewed from the sea; but there are wooded glens in the nooks of the mountain. In the crevices of the rock, asparagus, aloes, and other plants grow; and birds, rabbits, and apes play on the upper parts. At its highest point it is called the Sugar Loaf. It contains a number of caves, some of which are large, and others are mere passages.

QUESTION.—*Can you find twenty names in the foregoing paragraph?*

The foregoing names are called *nouns*.

TO THE TEACHER.—See Appendix, p. 261, Suggestion 1.

1. A **Noun** is a word used as a name.

EXERCISES.

2. *Copy the nouns in the foregoing paragraph.*
3. *Write five names of plants. Five nouns that are the names of animals. Five nouns that name places.*
4. *Point out the nouns in your reading-lesson.*

TO THE TEACHER.—See Appendix, p. 261, Sug. 2.

NOUNS. (*Continued.*)

Inductive Lesson.—1. Mary and Martha are sisters. 2. The city of Chicago is in the State of Illinois. 3. Where is the city of Louisville? 4. Is not May a pleasant month?

QUESTIONS.—*What particular names have the sisters? Which of the foregoing nouns are particular names? Which are general names? How do the two kinds differ? What kind of letter does each particular name begin with?*

5. The *particular names* given to persons, places, and other objects should begin with *capital letters*.

6. The names of the days of the week and the months of the year are particular names, and should begin with *capital letters*. The names of the seasons should begin with *small letters*.

EXERCISES.

7. Write the **particular names** (18) in the following list in one column, and the **general names** (7) in another. *Capitalize when required.*

city, louisville, philadelphia, lancaster, boy, girl, tree, john, man, johnson, alice, harold, towser, country, plato, venus, mary, england, california, planet.

8. Write the **names of the days of the week**. The months of the year. The seasons.

NOUNS. (Continued.)

Inductive Lesson.—1. New York is in the United States. 2. James A. Garfield was elected President in 1880. 3. Doctor Evans is a dentist. 4. Who was Lodovico Cornaro? 5. J. A. Garfield died in 1881, and Chester A. Arthur became President of the U. S.

QUESTIONS.—*Point out the names, or nouns, in the foregoing sentences. What names consist of more than one word? In what names are initial letters, or "initials," used? How is the name "United States" abbreviated?*

9. A noun may consist of *more than one word*.

10. Each word of a particular name consisting of more than one word should begin with a *capital letter*.

11. An *initial letter* should be followed by a *period* (.).

EXERCISE.

12. Write the names of five cities. Of five rivers. The names of the President of the U. S. and the Governor of the State. Of two great men. Your own name.

SENTENCES.

Inductive Lesson.—In each of the following groups or combinations of words, some object is named and something is said about it. These groups of words *make statements*, and are called *sentences*.

1. Iron rusts. 2. Dogs bark. 3. Soldiers fight. 4. Trees grow.
5. Jewels glitter.

The following groups of words do not make statements :

1. Old iron. 2. Barking dogs. 3. Soldiers at war. 4. Thrifty trees. 5. Costly jewels.

We can say of a statement, *It is true*; or, *It is not true*. Complete statements are sentences.

The following combinations of words *ask questions*, and are also called *sentences* :

1. Does iron rust? 2. Do dogs bark? 3. Can soldiers fight?
4. Will the trees grow? 5. Has William Cullen Bryant gone?

The following combinations of words *give commands*, and are also called *sentences* :

1. Mary, come. 2. Boys, study. 3. Soldiers, fight. 4. Work, William. 5. Try again.
-

13. A **Sentence** is a combination of words used to make a complete statement, to ask a question, or to give a command.

14. The *first word* of a sentence should begin with a *capital letter*.

15. A *statement* or a *command* should generally be followed by a *period* (.).

16. A *question* should be followed by an *interrogation-point* (?).

EXERCISES.

17. Which of the following combinations of words are sentences? Why?

1. Does wood float? 2. Does twinkle. 3. General Braddock was defeated. 4. The battle of Gettysburg. 5. Longfellow died. 6. Longfellow's death. 7. Seeds sprout. 8. Could Cæsar have been crowned? 9. Braddock's defeat. 10. Stars twinkle.

18. Punctuate these sentences. Which make statements, which ask questions, and which give commands?

1. Doves coo 2. Sin degrades 3. Bees hum 4. Boys, retire 5. Can parrots talk 6. Does the sun shine 7. Cornwallis surrendered 8. Soldiers, advance 9. Do snakes crawl 10. Napoleon was banished

19. Change the following questions to statements:

1. Can birds fly? 2. Was Cato banished? 3. Will Rover bite? 4. Was Stonewall Jackson killed? 5. Do flowers bloom?

20. Ask a question and make a statement about—

1. Horses. 2. Wrens. 3. Water. 4. General Grant. 5. New York.

PRONOUNS.

Inductive Lesson.—1. John lost John's book. 2. John lost his book. 3. Victoria became queen when Victoria was nineteen years old. 4. Victoria became queen when she was nineteen years old.

QUESTIONS.—Which sentence should be used, the first or the second? Why? What word in the fourth sentence is used instead of the noun "Victoria"?

The words *his* and *she* are used instead of nouns, and are called *pronouns*.

21. A **Pronoun** is a word used instead of a noun.

22. Nouns and pronouns are sometimes called **substantives**. They are used to represent¹ objects: nouns, by naming them; pronouns, without naming them.

1. To represent an object is to bring it before the mind.

EXERCISES.

23. Write a list of the **nouns** (22) and the **pronouns** (11) in the following story:

Did you ever hear how Deborah Read first saw her future husband, Benjamin Franklin? The young runaway apprentice had just bought three penny rolls at a baker's in Philadelphia; and with a roll under each arm, and eating the third one,¹ he walked along the street, by the house of Mr. Read,² whose³ daughter stood at the door, wondering at the strange appearance of the youth who⁴ was afterward to be her husband. But Benjamin was wholly unconscious of how he appeared to his future wife, and wandered about the streets of the city until he had finished his breakfast.

1. A pronoun. 2. *Mr. Read* is a noun.

24. Use pronouns in place of the blanks in the following sentences:

1. Mary dropped — knife as — was opening —. 2. London is the metropolis of the world. — is three times as large as New York. 3. “— shall not go with —,” — said.
4. “Ah, yes,” said the old man; “of course the boy will deceive —. — will make — believe anything.”
5. Suppose, — little lady,
— doll should break — head,
Could — make — whole by crying,
Till — nose and eyes were red?

VERBS.

Inductive Lesson.—1. Iron rusts. 2. They fight. 3. Flowers are blooming. 4. Does iron rust? 5. Have they gone? 6. Wasocrates poisoned? 7. Boys, study. 8. Come, Lilian.

QUESTIONS.—*What words in the first three sentences are used with nouns or pronouns to make statements? What words in the fourth, fifth, and sixth sentences are used with nouns or pronouns to ask questions? Which sentences give commands?*

The word *rusts* is used with the noun *iron* to make a statement. It is called a *verb*, and the noun *iron* is called its *subject*.

Does rust and *study* are also called *verbs*.

25. A **Verb** is a word used with a noun or a pronoun to make a statement, to ask a question, or to give a command.

26. A verb may consist of *more than one word*.

EXAMPLES.—“Flowers *are blooming*.” “Have they *gone*?” “It *might have been*.”

27. The **Subject** of a verb is the noun or the pronoun with which it is used to make a statement, to ask a question, or to give a command.

28. The subject of the verb is also called the *subject of the sentence*; and the verb is called the *predicate of the sentence*.

(a) The subject of a sentence represents the person or thing spoken of; the predicate denotes what is asserted of the person or thing represented by the subject.

In “Dogs bark,” “Dogs are cross,” “Dogs bite strangers,” *barking*, *being cross*, and *biting strangers*, are asserted of these animals.

TO THE TEACHER.—See Appendix, p. 262, Sug. 3.

29. The subject of a verb in a sentence that gives a command is generally *thou* or *you* understood.

EXAMPLE.—“Woodman, spare (*thou*) that tree!”—*Morris*.

EXERCISES.

30. *Supply subjects for the following verbs :*

1. — bloom. 2. — sing. 3. Is — coming? 4. Do — skate?
5. — burns. 6. — are jingling. 7. — roar.
8. Can — run? 9. — sparkle. 10. — swim.

31. *Supply verbs for the following subjects :*

1. Flowers —. 2. Frogs —. 3. — grass —? 4. Rabbits —.
5. Stars —. 6. We —. 7. — I —? 8. Water —.
9. Horses —. 10. Who —?

32. *Which are the subjects, and which the predicates, of the following sentences?*

1. Flowers bloom. 2. Sin degrades. 3. I can work. 4. Can you sing?
5. Has she come? 6. Morning is breaking. 7. Bells are jingling.
8. Who whispered? 9. Knowledge comes. 10. Wisdom lingers.

MODIFYING WORDS.

Remark.—If the rule with reference to whispering were changed so as to allow you to whisper more frequently, you could say that the rule was *modified*. So also we may say, "Our actions are modified by circumstances." "They agreed to modify the contract." "His trip through the South modified his views," etc.

33. To modify means to change somewhat.

Inductive Lesson.—Show me a book ; a new book ; an old book ; a small book ; this book ; Mary's book ; John's book.

When I say, "Show me a book," the word *book* applies to any book in the room. But when I say, "a new book," "an old book," "a small book," the word *book* applies to a certain kind of book. The words *new*, *old*, and *small* change the application of the word *book*, and are therefore said to *modify* it. So also the words *Mary's* and *John's*.

Move your hand. Move it slowly, fast, up, down. Do you vary the act of moving as I mention the words *slowly*, *fast*, *up*, etc. ?

The words *slowly*, *fast*, *up*, and *down* are said to modify the verb *move*.

So also, if I say, "I strike the table, the chair, James, Henry," the application of the verb *strike* is changed or varied by the words *table*, *chair*, etc. These words modify the verb *strike*.

When I say "the arching sky," the word *arching* adds something to the meaning of the word *sky*, but does not change its application so as to make it refer to a particular kind of sky. *Arching* is said to modify *sky*.

34. To modify a word is to change its application or add to its meaning.

35. A Modifier is a word or a group of words joined to a word to change its application or add to its meaning.

The meaning or application of a word may be changed by a *limiting* word or group of words, or by an *explanatory* word or group of words. Thus, in the sentence, "*Good boys study*," the word *good* limits or restricts the word *boys* to one kind of boys, *good boys*. In "*The all-wise Ruler of the universe*," *all-wise* is explanatory but not limiting.

EXERCISE.

36. Point out the **modifying words** (12) in the following sentences, and the words modified by them :

1. Old men walk slowly. 2. That bright little boy recites well.
3. Those soldiers fought courageously and cautiously. 4. Did she sing sweetly ? 5. Ella's book is on my desk.

ADJECTIVES.

Inductive Lesson.—1. Is fresh water a wholesome drink ? 2. Ella's new book is torn. 3. Venus is brilliant. 4. My father is old. 5. He is old.

QUESTIONS.—Point out eight words in the foregoing sentences that are used to modify nouns. Which two of these represent objects (22) ? Which word modifies a pronoun ?

The words *fresh*, *a*, *wholesome*, *new*, *brilliant*, and *old* modify nouns without representing objects ; and they are called *adjectives*.

The word *old* modifies the pronoun *he* without representing an object ; and it is called an *adjective*.

37. An **Adjective** is a word used to modify a noun or a pronoun without representing an object.

EXERCISES.

38. Use adjectives in place of the following blanks :

1. — — — beggar sat by — wayside. 2. A — teacher will have — pupils. 3. A — name is better than — riches.
4. When did you purchase — — — flute ?
5. How doth — — — bee
Improve — — — hour,
And gather honey — — — day
From — — — flower !

39. Use adjectives in place of the words in brackets [] :

1. [Which ?] [what kind of ?] book is mine. 2. [Which ?] oranges are [of what size ?] [of what shape ?] and [of what taste ?].
3. The [how many ?] commandments are given in the [which one ?] chapter of Exodus. 4. The Eastern Continent contains [how

many?] [what kind of?] divisions. 5. Do the [what kind of?] goods always come in the [what kind of?] packages?

40. Point out the adjectives in the following stanzas (19), and the word that each adjective modifies:

THE DANDELION.

Brave little dandelion !
Fast falls the snow,
Bending the daffodil's
Haughty head low ;
Under that fleecy tent,
Careless of cold,
Blithe little dandelion
Counteth her gold.

Pale little dandelion,
In her white shroud,
Heareth the angel-breeze
Call from the cloud ;
Tiny plumes fluttering
Make no delay ;
Little winged dandelion
Soareth away.

—Helen B. Bostwick.

QUESTIONS.—What kind of letter does each line of the foregoing poem begin with? How many of the punctuation-marks that are used can you name? Why is the name "Helen B. Bostwick" placed after the poem?

ADVERBS.

Inductive Lesson.—1. Listen attentively. 2. I saw James frequently. 3. It will soon be quite dark. 4. Listen very attentively. 5. Try to study well.

QUESTIONS.—What word modifies the verb "listen"? What two words modify "saw"? Which one of these represents an object? What word in the third sentence modifies the adjective "dark"? What word in the fourth sentence modifies "attentively"? What word in the fifth sentence modifies the verbal "to study" (62)?

The words *attentively* and *frequently* modify verbs without representing objects; and they are called *adverbs*.

The word *quite* modifies the adjective *dark*; *very* modifies the adverb *attentively*; and *well* modifies the verbal *to study*. *Quite*, *very*, and *well* are called *adverbs*.

41. An **Adverb** is a word used to modify a verb, a verbal, an adjective, or another adverb, without representing an object.

EXERCISES.

42. Use adverbs in place of the following blanks :

1. Baby bye, ——'s a fly. 2. A —— large crop of wheat has —— been harvested. 3. Christmas will —— be —— ——. 4. Is glass —— brittle? 5. The oak grows —— ——.

43. Use adverbs in place of the words in brackets :

1. My sister can sew [how?]. 2. I saw her [where?]. 3. I saw her [when?]. 4. Young persons [when?] speak [how?]. 5. [When?] write [how?] and spell [how?].

44. Point out the adverbs in the following stanza (9), and the word that each adverb modifies :

Twenty frogs once went to school
Down beside a rushy pool—
Twenty little coats of green,
Twenty vests, quite white and clean.
“We are very prompt,” said they ;
“First we study, then we play :
That is how¹ we keep the rule,
As² we daily go to school.”

1. The adverb *how* modifies *keep*. 2. *As* modifies *go*.

PHRASES.

Inductive Lesson.—1. Wise men act carefully. 2. Men of wisdom act with care. 3. The German lady speaks our language well. 4. The lady from Germany speaks our language well. 5. The tree lies there. 6. The tree lies in that place. 7. Toward London is east.

QUESTIONS.—*What group of words in the second sentence is used in place of the adjective in the first? In the fourth sentence, what combination of words is used in place of the adjective “German”? What two words in the second sentence are used in place of the adverb “carefully” in the first? In the sixth sentence, what combination of words is used as an adverb? How is “toward London” used?*

The combination of words of *wisdom* is used as an adjective ; *with care* is used as an adverb ; *toward London* is used as a noun. These combinations of words are called *phrases*.

45. A Phrase is a combination of words that does not contain a subject and a predicate, and is used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

EXERCISE.

46. Select the phrases (12) in the following sentences, and the words that they modify :

1. America was discovered by Columbus in 1492. 2. Did you speak to the man from the city of Boston ? 3. The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea.—*Gray*. 4. In the spring a fuller crimson comes upon the robin's breast.—*Tennyson*.

5. Lives of great men all remind us
We can make our lives sublime,
And, departing, leave behind us
Footprints on the sands of time.—*Longfellow*.

PREPOSITIONS.

Inductive Lesson.—1. The lady from Germany speaks our language with fluency. 2. Men of honor will be trusted at all times. 8. I spoke to him.

QUESTIONS.—*What word is used with the noun "Germany" to form a phrase ? With the noun "honor" ? With the pronoun "him" ? What word does the phrase "from Germany" modify ? "With fluency" ? "To him" ? What word joins the phrase "from Germany" to the noun "lady" ? The phrase "at times" to the verb "will be trusted" ?*

The word *from* is used with the noun *Germany* to form the phrase *from Germany*, which it joins to *lady* ; and it is called a *preposition*.

The words *with*, *of*, *at*, and *to* are used with nouns or pronouns to form phrases, which they join to the words that the phrases modify ; and they are called *prepositions*.

47. A Preposition is a word used with a noun or a pronoun to form a phrase, which it joins to the word that the phrase modifies.

48. After, at, behind, below, for, from, of, in, over, and up are among the prepositions most commonly used.

49. The noun or the pronoun with which a preposition is used to form a phrase is called the *object* of the preposition.

EXERCISE.

50. *Supply prepositions for the following blanks :*

1. The triumphs — the warrior are bounded — the narrow theatre — his own age.—*Prescott*. 2. — his youth, Whittier worked — his father — a farm. 3. I looked — the swallow building its nest — the eaves — the barn. 4. Alexander Hamilton was killed — a duel — Aaron Burr, — 1804.

5. All are architects — Fate,
Working — these walls — Time ;
Some — massive deeds and great,
Some — ornaments — rhyme.—*Longfellow*.

CONJUNCTIONS.

Inductive Lesson.—1. The sun was shining, and the birds were singing. 2. Knowledge comes, but Wisdom lingers. 3. We study grammar and geography. 4. The old man is ill or tired. 5. Through fields and through forests he bounded away.

QUESTIONS.—*What two sentences does the word "and" join? What word joins "Knowledge comes" and "Wisdom lingers"? What two words does "and" join in the third sentence? "Or" in the fourth? What word joins the two phrases in the fifth sentence?*

The words *and*, *but*, and *or* join sentences, or parts of a sentence ; and they are called *conjunctions*.

51. A **Conjunction** is a word used to join sentences, or parts of a sentence.

For obvious reasons, the chief classes of conjunctions are given below.

CO-ORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

Inductive Lesson.—1. Jupiter and Venus are brilliant. 2. He walks rapidly but awkwardly. 3. Heat expands metals, and cold contracts them.

QUESTIONS.—*Between what two words is "and" placed in the first sentence? What two words does "but" join in the second sentence? What two*

nouns are the subjects of the verb "are" ? Are they used in the same way ? What verb does the adverb "rapidly" modify ? "Awkwardly" ? Are these two words used in the same way ?

Words used in the same way in a sentence are said to have the *same construction*.

The word *and* in the first sentence joins two words that have the same construction, and it is called a *co-ordinate conjunction*. In the third sentence, the conjunction *and* joins two sentences, and it is called a *co-ordinate conjunction*.

52. A Co-ordinate Conjunction is a conjunction used to join sentences, or parts of a sentence that have the same construction.

53. The chief co-ordinate conjunctions are *and*, *but*, *or*, and *nor*.

EXERCISES.

54. *Point out the co-ordinate conjunctions, and the parts joined by them :*

1. Trees and shrubs are growing in the yard. 2. Old and tried soldiers fight courageously, but cautiously. 3. We rush through valleys and across ravines.

55. *Use co-ordinate conjunctions in place of the blanks :*

A thirsty crow once searched everywhere for water, — she could not find a drop. At last she spied a jug, — pitcher, with water in it. Down she flew at once, — eagerly pushed in her bill, — tried to drink ; — she could not reach the water. She then attempted to tip the jug over, — upset it, — it was too heavy, — she could not move it. Just then she saw some stones lying near ; — she bravely — cheerfully went to work — dropped them one by one into the jug ; — soon the water rose, — she could drink all she wanted.

CLAUSES.

Inductive Lesson.—1. Wise men act carefully. 2. Men who are wise act carefully. 3. The German lady speaks our language well. 4. The lady that came from Germany speaks our language well. 5.

The tree lies there. 6. The tree lies where it fell. 7. She will come then. 8. She will come when the bell rings. 9. Did you hear the news? 10. Did you hear that Garfield was shot?

QUESTIONS.—*What group of words in the second sentence is used in place of the adjective in the first? Does "who are wise" contain a subject and predicate? In the fourth sentence, what combination of words containing a subject and predicate is used in place of the adjective "German"? In the sixth sentence, what combination of words is used in place of the adverb "there" in the fifth? In the eighth sentence, what combination of words is used as an adverb? What combination of words in the tenth sentence is used in place of the noun "news" in the ninth?*

The combination of words *who are wise* is used as an adjective; *where it fell* is used as an adverb; *that Garfield was shot* is used as a noun. Each of these combinations of words contains a subject and predicate, and is called a *clause*.

56. A Clause is a combination of words containing a subject and a predicate, and used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

EXERCISE.

57. Point out the clauses in the following sentences :

1. Pupils that study will improve. 2. The troops surrendered because their commander was killed. 3. Make hay while the sun shines. 4. Never put off till to-morrow what you can do to-day.

5. We count the broken lyres that rest

Where the sweet wailing singers slumber.—*Holmes.*

QUESTIONS.—*Which two of these clauses modify nouns, and are therefore adjective clauses? Which three of them are used as adverbs to modify verbs? Which one is used as a noun?*

SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

Inductive Lesson.—1. I will go if you remain. 2. The troops surrendered because their commander was killed. 3. Performance is better than promising (is).

QUESTIONS.—*What clause follows "will go"? What word is used with "you remain" to form a clause? If "if" were dropped, would the clause be joined to "will go"? What clause modifies "surrendered"? Which is the first word of the clause? Does "because" join the clause to "surrendered"? What word joins "than promising (is)" to "better"?*

The word *if* is used with the subject *you* and the predicate *remain* to form a clause, which it joins to *will go*; and it is called a *subordinate conjunction*.

The words *if*, *because*, and *than* are used to join clauses to the words that the clauses modify. They are called *subordinate conjunctions*.

58. A Subordinate Conjunction is a conjunction used with a subject and a predicate to form a clause, which it joins to the word that the clause modifies.

59. Among the chief subordinate conjunctions are *as*, *because*, *if*, *than*, and *that*.

EXERCISES.

60. Use subordinate conjunctions in place of the blanks in the following sentences :

1. Contentment is better — wealth. 2. Was Cæsar slain — he was ambitious? 3. She is younger — I am. 4. — ye love me, keep my commandments. 5. — the moon is very much smaller — the sun, yet — it is much nearer the earth, it appears to be nearly as large as the sun.

61. Use a co-ordinate or a subordinate conjunction in place of each of the blanks in the following sentences :

1. — the moon should pass between the earth — the sun, there would be an eclipse of the sun; — — the earth should pass between the sun — the moon, there would be an eclipse of the moon. 2. Which study do you like best, arithmetic, algebra, — geometry? 3. I like geometry better — the others, — I think — it is more interesting — perhaps more useful. 4. Vice — crime will flee before us. 5. I know — he knows it.

VERBALS.

VERBALS USED AS NOUNS.

Inductive Lesson.—1. I desire something. 2. I desire to go. 3. You will oblige me by remaining.

QUESTIONS.—What word in the second sentence is used instead of the noun "something" in the first? What is the object of the preposition "by"? From what verb is "to go" derived? "Remaining"?

The words *to go* and *remaining* are derived from the verbs *go* and *remain*, and are used as nouns. They are called *verbals*.

VERBALS USED AS ADJECTIVES.

Inductive Lesson.—1. He has opportunities to study. 2. Money that is earned is appreciated. 3. Money earned is appreciated.

QUESTIONS.—*What kind of opportunities has he? What does "to study" modify? Read the adjective clause in the second sentence. What word in the third sentence is used instead of this clause? What does the clause modify? What does "earned" in the third sentence modify?*

The words *to study* and *earned* are derived from the verbs *study* and *earn*, and are used as adjectives. They are called *verbals*.

VERBALS USED AS ADVERBS.

Inductive Lesson.—1. She has come for this purpose. 2. She has come that she might study. 3. She has come to study. 4. Because they were suspected, they withdrew. 5. Having been suspected, they withdrew.

QUESTIONS.—*What phrase in the first sentence tells why she has come? What clause in the second sentence tells why she has come? What verb does the phrase modify? The clause? What verb in the third sentence does "to study" modify? What verb does "having been suspected" modify?*

The words *to study* and *having been suspected* are derived from the verbs *study* and *suspect*, and are used as adverbs. They are called *verbals*.

62. A Verbal is a word that is derived from a verb and partakes of its nature, and is used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

EXERCISES.

63. Point out the verbals used as nouns :

1. To err is human.—*Pope*. 2. To resist evil by evil is evil.—*Mohammed*. 3. To have ideas is to gather flowers. To think is to weave them into garlands.—*Madame Swetchine*. 4. Reading without purpose is unprofitable. 5. He objected to being defeated.

64. Point out the verbals used as adjectives :

1. Have they the courage to try? 2. Wealth acquired dishonestly is frequently a curse. 3. A noun is a word used as a name. 4. The passage is to be feared. 5. The bird flying is a wren.

65. Point out the verbals used as adverbs :

1. They have gone to stay. 2. Having been detected, they were punished. 3. I was persuaded to remain. 4. Scaling yonder peak, I saw an eagle. 5. He is anxious to be employed.

RESPONSIVES.

Inductive Lesson.—1. Is Autumn dying? Yes. 2. Do you expect him? No.

QUESTION.—*What words are used to reply to the foregoing questions?*

The words *yes* and *no* are used in replying to questions, and are called *responsives*.

66. A Responsive is the word *yes, yea, ay, no, nay,* or *amen*, used to reply or respond to a question or a petition.

67. Use responsives in place of the following blanks :

1. Will you go? —. 2. Have they returned? —. 3. Can you recite "The Vagabonds"? —. 4. As many as are of the opinion that the tariff bill should be repealed will say *Ay*. —. 5. Deliver us from evil. —.

INTERJECTIONS.

Inductive Lesson.—1. Oh! I am wounded. 2. Hurrah! hurrah! It is over! 3. Ha, ha! 4. Hark! did ye not hear it? 5. Halloo!

QUESTIONS.—*Which of the foregoing words are used to express a sudden feeling? Which are used to call attention?*

The words *oh, hurrah,* and *ha* are used to express a sudden feeling, and are called *interjections*. The words *hark* and *halloo* are used to call attention, and are also called *interjections*.

68. An Interjection is a word used simply to express a sudden feeling or to call attention.

69. An interjection should generally be followed by an *exclamation-point* (!).

EXERCISES.

70. Which of the following words are interjections ?

1. Alas, poor Yorick ! 2. Ho, ho ! Come here. 3. Hush ! he will hear you. 4. "O' stay !" the maiden said.

5. Be sure that you blow out the candle—

Ri fol de rol tol de rol lol.—*Horace Smith*.

1. The interjection *O* is always written with a *capital letter*.

71. Use interjections in place of the following blanks :

1. — ! I am hurt. 2. — ! What is it ? 3. — ! She is dying. 4. —, John ! 5. — ! Tread softly.

DEFINITION OF LANGUAGE.

72. Language is the expression of thought by means of words combined in sentences.

We think, and our mental products are ideas and thoughts. An idea is expressed by a single word, or a group of words not containing a subject and predicate ; as, *birds, trees, grow, can fly, wise, more beautiful*, etc. A thought is expressed by a group of words containing a subject and predicate ; as, *Birds can fly ; Trees are plants*, etc.

73. All the words of the language can be divided, according to their use, into ten classes, called *parts of speech*. A **Part of Speech** is, therefore, a class of words that is made according to their use in sentences.

74. The ten parts of speech are—

Nouns, Pronouns, Verbs, Adjectives, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, Verbals, Responsives, and Interjections.

75. The part of speech to which a word belongs is determined from *its use in the sentence in which it is found*. Hence a word may be a noun in one sentence, a verb in another, an adjective in another, and so on ; as, "The *fast* is over" (*n.*). "I *fast* twice a week" (*v.*). "He owns a *fast* horse" (*adj.*). "The horse trots *fast*" (*adv.*).

The word *word* is frequently used in this book as the equivalent of *part of speech*. It must not be forgotten, however, that a part of speech may con-

sist of several words. Thus, *General Fitz-John Porter* is a noun; *might have been marching* is a verb; *more gallant* is an adjective; *less wisely* is an adverb; *to be reproved* is a verbal; *according to* is a preposition; *as if* is a conjunction, etc.

EXERCISES.

76. Write a list of the words belonging to each part of speech in 23, 40, 44, and 46.

77. Name the parts of speech in your reading-lesson.

DEFINITION OF GRAMMAR.

78. **Grammar** is the science that treats of the relations and forms of words and sentences, as used in the correct expression of thought.

When words are so combined as to bring together the ideas expressed by them, they are said to be *related*. The relation of words is indicated by their form and position.

The form of a word is determined by the idea that it expresses, and the relation that it bears to other words. The position of a word is determined by the relation that it bears to other words.

The leading logical divisions of English grammar are *etymology*, which treats of the classification and form of words, and *syntax*, which treats of the relation of words and the construction and form of sentences.

ABBREVIATIONS.

Inductive Lesson.—1. Gen. R. E. Lee was a brave soldier. 2. Prof. O. W. Holmes, M. D., resides in Mass. 3. The sirup cost twenty-five cts. a gal.

QUESTIONS.—*What is the first word of the first sentence? Is it abbreviated? What does "abbreviate" mean? What other words are abbreviated? With what kind of letters do they begin? What punctuation-mark follows them?*

79. Shortened written words like *Gen.*, *R.*, *Prof.*, *M. D.*, etc., are called **abbreviations**.

In speaking, the word for which the abbreviation stands is usually pronounced in full, except in the case of initial letters in a person's name, and a few titles, such as A. M., LL. D., M. D., etc. Thus, "Robert E. Pattison, Gov. of Pa.," should be read *Robert E. Pattison, Governor of Pennsylvania*.

80. An *abbreviation* should begin with the same kind of letter as the word for which it stands, and be followed by a period.

EXERCISES.

81. Write the following **abbreviations** and the words for which they stand:

Mr., Mrs., Dr., M. D., A. M., Col., P. M., Ala., Ill., Pa., W. Va., N. O., Acct., Recd., A. D. (See Appendix, p. 257.)

82. **Abbreviate** the following words:

Esquire, Doctor of Laws, Honorable, Professor, Florida, Kentucky, Tennessee, British America, county, hour, France, bushel, creditor, debtor, yards.

83. Write the **abbreviations** for the days of the week. The months of the year.

CONTRACTIONS.

Inductive Lesson.—1. I've treasured it. 2. They'll come soon.
3. Can't, ma'am, o'er.

QUESTIONS.—What does "I've" mean? How may "they will" be contracted? What is meant by "contracted"? From what is "can't" contracted? "O'er"?

84. Shortened spoken and written expressions like *o'er*, *I've*, etc., are called **contractions**.

A contraction should be read as it is written. Thus, "I'll go" should not be read "I will go." Contractions should be avoided in formal writing and speaking.

85. An **apostrophe** (') should be used in a contraction to show the omission of one or more letters.

86. The contraction *ain't* should not be used. *Do n't* should be used as a contraction of *do not*, and not of *does not*.

EXERCISES.

87. **Explain** the following **contractions**:

Don't; sha'n't; he's; they're; aren't; isn't; I'll; 'tis; we've.

88. Correct the following errors:

1. Theyre not coming. 2. Weve found them. 3. I aint going.
4. He dont care. 5. Aint you mistaken ?

To THE TEACHER.—See Appendix, p. 262, Sug. 4.

OMITTED WORDS.

Inductive Lesson.—1. Who is there ? William. 2. When was Gladstone born ? In 1809.

QUESTIONS.—*Does the word "William" answer the first question in full ? Do the words "William is there" ? What words are omitted in the answer to the second question ?*

89. Words necessary to the sense are frequently *omitted* in speaking and writing. The hearer or reader must be able to supply them.

Frequently, it is better to answer questions without omitting words. We should *form the habit of using sentences* to express our thoughts.

EXERCISE.

90. Supply the omitted words:

1. Where is Gibraltar ? In Spain. 2. To what government does it belong ? England. 3. Pride goeth before destruction, and a haughty spirit before a fall.—*Prov. xvi, 18.* 4. Who won the battle of Chancellorsville ? General Lee. 5. How ? By skillful generalship.

To THE TEACHER.—See Appendix, p. 262, Sug. 5 and 6.

FOR REVIEW.

91. *Review the remarks and exercises that are numbered, and illustrate each remark with an original sentence.*

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

To THE TEACHER.—Pupils should now begin to study Part V, "Elements of Composition." See p. 203. See also Appendix, p. 262, Sug. 7.

The exercises in Part V *can not be omitted without great disadvantage to the pupil.*

PART II.

ELEMENTS AND ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

SENTENCES.

92. A Sentence is a combination of words used to make a complete statement, to ask a question, or to give a command.

SENTENCES CLASSED ACCORDING TO FORM.

Inductive Lesson.—1. Birds fly. 2. The sun is shining. 3. Men who are wise, act carefully. 4. The tree lies where it fell. 5. Knowledge comes, but wisdom lingers.—*Tennyson.*

QUESTIONS.—*What is the subject of the first sentence? The predicate? What words form a clause in the third sentence? In the fourth? Of what two sentences is the fifth sentence composed?*

The first sentence contains but one subject and one predicate, and is called a *simple sentence*. The third sentence contains a clause, and is called a *complex sentence*. The fifth sentence is composed of two sentences, and is called a *compound sentence*.

93. Sentences are divided, according to their form, into three classes: *Simple, Complex, and Compound.*

94. A Simple Sentence is a sentence that contains but one subject and one predicate.

95. A Complex Sentence is a sentence that contains a clause.

96. A Compound Sentence is a sentence composed of two or more sentences.

97. The sentences used to form a compound sentence are called **members** of the compound sentence.

It should be remembered that the term *clause* is loosely used in many text-books on rhetoric and grammar to name any part of a sentence containing a subject and predicate. The reasons for restricting the use of this term to subordinate propositions, and using the term *member* to name the co-ordinate parts of a compound sentence, are obvious.

(a) A sentence that contains two or more subjects or predicates, and can be expanded into a compound sentence, may be called a **contracted compound sentence**; as, "Days come and go" (= Days come and days go).

(b) A sentence that contains two or more subjects, and can not be expanded into a compound sentence, may be called a **partial compound sentence**; as, "Charles Jones and Henry Brown constitute the firm."

EXERCISE.

98. Which of the following sentences are **simple**, which **complex**, and which **compound**? Why?

1. Sirius is a bright star. 2. How I wonder what you are ! 3. I came, I saw, I conquered. 4. The Queen of Sheba, who had heard of the wisdom of Solomon, visited him. 5. The British army left America in 1782 and 1783, and in 1783 the American army was disbanded. 6. Love your enemies. 7. Observe the scope and design of the writer. 8. Righteousness exalteth a nation, but sin is a reproach to any people.—*Prov. xiv, 34*. 9. I saw who came. 10. Men labor that they may become rich.

SENTENCES CLASSED ACCORDING TO USE.

Inductive Lesson.—1. Sirius is a bright star. 2. Is Sirius a bright star ? 3. Boys, go to work. 4. How bright Sirius is ! 5. If your letter is finished, bring it to me.

QUESTIONS.—Which sentences are used to make statements ? Which one is used to ask a question ? Which ones are used to give commands ?

The first sentence is used to make a statement, and is called a *declarative sentence*. The second sentence is used to ask a question, and is called an *interrogative sentence*. The third sentence is used to give a command, and is called an *imperative sentence*.

99. Sentences are divided, according to their use, into three classes : *Declarative, Interrogative, and Imperative.*

100. A **Declarative Sentence** is a sentence used to make a statement.

101. An **Interrogative Sentence** is a sentence used to ask a question.

102. An **Imperative Sentence** is a sentence used to give a command.

(a) Some declarative sentences are used to express a sudden thought or feeling, and may be called *exclamatory sentences*. An exclamatory sentence should be followed by an *exclamation-point* (!).

EXERCISE.

103. *Classify the following sentences according to form and use :*

1. Give me liberty. 2. Do you love your enemies ? 3. Do you know where Lucknow is ? 4. The numerous harbors of Maine offer the best facilities for commerce. 5. Doubt vanished with Smoke, and Hope began with Flame.—*Mitchell.*

ANALYSIS.

Inductive Lesson.—Diligent pupils improve rapidly.

QUESTIONS.—*What kind of sentence is the foregoing ? What is its subject ? Its predicate ? By what adjective is "pupils" modified ? By what adverb is "improve" modified ?*

The answers to the foregoing questions may be given according to a certain form, as follows :

This is a simple, declarative sentence. *Pupils* is the subject ; it is modified by *diligent*, an adjective. *Improve* is the predicate ; it is modified by *rapidly*, an adverb.

This statement is called the *analysis* of the sentence. It may be expressed in writing, thus :

WRITTEN ANALYSIS.

SD		<i>pupils</i> *
		<i>Diligent</i> **
		<i>improve</i> ?
		<i>rapidly</i> **

104. Analysis is the process of separating a sentence into the words, phrases, and clauses of which it is composed.

Analysis may be either oral or written. The written analysis of a sentence is conveniently and appropriately called an *outline* of the sentence.

105. The words, phrases, and clauses of which a sentence is composed are called its **elements**.

106. The elements of a sentence may be divided into **essential** elements (the *subject* and *predicate*), **modifying** elements, **conjunctive** elements, and **independent** elements.

CHIEF USES OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH. ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

NOUNS, PRONOUNS, AND VERBS.

Verbs and Their Subjects.

Remark.—In the sentences “Birds fly” and “He came,” the noun *birds* is the subject of the verb *fly*; and the pronoun *he* is the subject of the verb *came*. *Birds* and *he* are also the subjects of the sentences, and *fly* and *came* are the predicates (28). It may be seen that—

107. Nouns and pronouns may be used as the *subjects of verbs* (27).

108. Nouns and pronouns thus used are called the **subjects** of the sentences of which the verbs are the **predicates**.

The way in which words are used in sentences is called their *construction*. The word *construction* means “building together.”

EXERCISES.

109. Analyze the following sentences :

1.¹ Music charms.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

This is a simple, declarative sentence. *Music* is the subject. *Charms* is the predicate.

WRITTEN ANALYSIS.

SD *Music*
charms

2. Must I stay? 3.¹ Intelligence rules. 4. Study.* 5. Gentle persons are greatly admired.*

1. Sentences marked with black figures, like this, should be committed to memory. 2. *You understood* is the subject. In outlining, inclose it in parentheses. A sentence the subject or the predicate of which is omitted, may be called *elliptical*. 3. In the fifth sentence, the subject *persons* is modified by the adjective *gentle*, and the predicate *are admired* is modified by the adverb *greatly*. (See 37 and 41.) Adjectives and adverbs thus used will frequently be found in the following exercises.

EXPLANATION.—A *straight, vertical line*, rather heavy, joins the subject and the predicate. It should be drawn close to the words that it joins, and extend from the upper part of a small letter in the subject to the line of writing of the predicate. The letters to the right and above the words should be written neatly and in a smaller hand than the sentence; and the usual punctuation-marks for abbreviated words should be omitted. Modifying words are written under the words that they modify, beginning about the space of four letters to the right.

TO THE TEACHER.—See Appendix, p. 262, Sug. 8.

110. Copy three sentences containing nouns used as the subjects of verbs. Two containing pronouns.

TO THE TEACHER.—See Appendix, p. 263, Sug. 9.

Possessive Nouns and Pronouns.

Remark.—In “John’s books,” the noun *John’s* modifies the noun *books* by denoting possession. So also the pronoun *our* in “our nation.” It may be seen that—

111. Nouns and pronouns may modify other nouns and pronouns by *denoting possession*.

112. Nouns and pronouns thus used are called **possessive nouns and pronouns**.

EXERCISES.

113. Analyze the following sentences:

1. My brother-in-law’s valuable property was partly destroyed.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

OUTLINE.

This is a simple, declarative sentence. *Property* is the subject; it is modified by *brother-in-law’s*, a possessive noun, and *valuable*, an adjective. *Brother-in-law’s* is modified by *my*, a possessive pronoun. *Was destroyed* is the predicate; it is modified by *partly*, an adverb.

S D		<i>property</i> ⁿ
		<i>brother-in-law’s</i> ⁿ
		<i>My</i> ^{pp}
		<i>valuable</i> ^{adj}
		<i>was destroyed</i> ^p
		<i>partly</i> ^{adv}

EXPLANATION.—A guide-line is drawn from the fourth letter of the subject to the word *valuable*, to show at a glance that *valuable*, as well as *brother-in-law's*, modifies *property*. A guide-line should *always be used* when words modifying the same word are separated by other words.

2. Whose books were taken? 3. General Jackson's forces were soon engaged. 4. Where did Longfellow's *Evangeline* live? 5. The old man's feeble footsteps slowly died away.

114. Copy three sentences containing possessive nouns. Two containing possessive pronouns.

Appositive Nouns and Pronouns.

Remark.—In "The poet Keats," the noun *Keats* modifies the noun *poet* by representing the same person. It may be seen that—

115. Nouns and pronouns may modify other nouns and pronouns by *representing the same person or thing*.

116. Nouns and pronouns thus used are called **appositive nouns and pronouns**.

Appositive means "placed by the side of."

EXERCISES.

117. Analyze the following sentences:

1. The steamer Tallapoosa was lost. 2. I myself will go. 3. When did the painter Raphael live? 4. Has your friend Sarah returned? 5. Was our late President, General U. S. Grant,¹ ever wounded?

OUTLINE.
steamer *
The ^{adj}
Tallapoosa * *

1. *General U. S. Grant* is a noun (9).

118. Copy two sentences containing appositive nouns.

Complements.

Remark.—In the sentence "Dogs bark," nothing is needed to complete the sense; but if we say, "Dogs chase —," or "Dogs are —," the sense is incomplete, and some word, as *rabbits* or *cross*, must be added to express the full meaning; thus: "Dogs chase rabbits," or "Dogs are cross." The words *rabbits* and *cross* are the complements of the verbs that they follow. And in the sentence "They

desire to be *soldiers*," the word *soldiers* is needed after the verbal *to be* to complete the meaning, and is its complement.

The word *complement* means "something that completes."

119. A Complement is a noun, a pronoun, or an adjective, added to a verb or a verbal to complete the meaning.

EXERCISE.

120. Supply complements:

1. Longfellow was a —.
2. He wrote —.
3. Evangeline and Hiawatha are —.
4. I want to be an —.
5. To chase — is —.
6. Whose — is that?
7. Whose — have you?
8. The child was called —.
9. Gibbon was an —.
10. Jefferson was elected —.

Subjective Predicate Nouns and Pronouns.

Remark.—In the sentence "Longfellow was a poet," the noun *poet* modifies the noun *Longfellow* by representing the same person, and it is also the complement of the verb *was*. It may be seen that—

121. Nouns and pronouns may be the *complements* of verbs and modify their subjects by *representing the same person or thing*.

122. Nouns and pronouns thus used are called **subjective predicate nouns and pronouns**.

EXERCISES.

123. Analyze the following sentences:

1. Beaumont was Fletcher's co-laborer.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

Was is the incomplete predicate. Its complement is *co-laborer*, a subjective predicate noun, which modifies *Beaumont*. *Co-laborer* is modified, etc.

OUTLINE.

S D | Beaumont
was +
co-laborer " " "
Fletcher's " " "

EXPLANATION.—The complement of a verb that modifies its subject is written under the verb, beginning at the fourth letter. Add a small sign (+) to a verb or a verbal when it is incomplete.

As *was* has but three letters in it, a small dash is used on the line of writing in place of the fourth letter.

2. Sirius is a bright star. 3. Millard Fillmore was not elected president. 4. Was Charles chosen umpire? 5. The French emperor Napoleon was a great general.

124. Copy three sentences containing subjective predicate nouns.

Verbals sometimes refer to preceding nouns and pronouns; as, "James wishes to become a scholar." "He is tired of being a clerk." "Goldsmith spoke of returning to London." (505.)

Verbals are sometimes used without reference to a preceding noun or pronoun; as, "To become a scholar requires study." "To be employed is to be happy." (506.)

Subjective Predicate Nouns. (Continued.)

Remark.—In the sentence "James wishes to become a scholar," the noun *scholar* modifies the noun *James*, and is also the complement of *to become*. It may be seen that—

125. Nouns and pronouns may be the *complements* of verbals, and modify the nouns and pronouns to which they refer by *representing the same person or thing*.

126. Nouns and pronouns thus used may conveniently be called **subjective predicate nouns and pronouns**.

EXERCISE.

127. Explain the use of the words in italics:

1. Do *you* desire to become a *poet*? 2. *I* have no desire to be *he*. 3. Did *Henry Clay* expect to be elected *President*? 4. *He* became tired of being a country *physician*. 5. Try to be a brave *man*.

Nouns and Pronouns Used Absolutely.

Remark.—In the sentence "To become a scholar requires study," the noun *scholar* is the complement of the verbal *to become*, but it does not modify any preceding noun or pronoun. It may be seen that—

128. Nouns and pronouns may be used merely as the *complements of verbals*.

129. In such constructions nouns and pronouns are said to be used *absolutely* (335, 2).

Absolutely means "in a loosened sense."

EXERCISE.

130. Explain the use of the words in italics :

1. To be called a *Christian* was at one time a reproach. 2. It requires courage to be a *soldier*. 3. The *difficulties* in the way of becoming a successful *lawyer* are not slight *ones*.

Direct Objects.

Remark.—In the sentence "Dogs bite strangers," the noun *strangers* modifies the verb *bite* by representing the persons receiving or directly affected by the act of biting, and it is also the complement of the verb. And in the sentence "We talk of educating our children," the noun *children* modifies the verbal *educating* in the same way, and is also the complement of *educating*. It may be seen that—

131. Nouns and pronouns may be the *complements* of verbs and verbals, and modify them by *representing the person or thing receiving or directly affected by the action expressed by them*.

132. Nouns and pronouns thus used are called **direct objects**.

133. The **direct object** of a verb or a verbal can be found by asking a question with *whom* or *what* before the verb or the verbal. The answer will be the *direct object*; as, "*Whom* did John strike?" "John struck *James*." "*What* did Columbus discover?" "Columbus discovered *America*." "*Whom* do we talk of educating?" "We talk of educating our *children*." "*What* is it profitable to study?" "To study *grammar* is profitable." (But see 403.)

Verbs and verbals that have direct objects are said to be *transitive*. (394.)

EXERCISES.

134. Explain the use of the words in italics, and analyze 1, 2, 4, 6, and 7.

1. Cæsar conquered *Gaul*.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

Conquered is the incomplete predicate. Its complement is *Gaul*, a direct object, by which it is modified.

OUTLINE.

S D Cæsar^a
conquered^p +
Gaul^d.

EXPLANATION.—The sign + shows that the predicate is incomplete.

2. You have wronged *me*. 3. *Flavius* exhorted the *heathen* to abandon *idolatry*. 4. Did Aaron Burr kill *Hamilton*? 5. *Valdez* tried to suppress the *slave-trade* in Cuba. 6. Columbus discovered *Cuba*. 7. Columbus's brother *Bartholomew* visited the English monarch, Henry VIII.¹

1. See 9 and 115.

135. Copy three sentences containing nouns used as direct objects. Two containing pronouns.

Objective Predicate Nouns and Pronouns.

Remark.—It has been shown that in the sentence "Charles was chosen umpire," the noun *umpire* is the complement of the verb *was*, and modifies its subject. In the sentence "The captains chose Charles umpire," the noun *umpire* is a complement of *chose*, and modifies *Charles* by representing the same person. But *Charles* has become the direct object of *chose*, and consequently modifies it and is also a complement of it. The verb *chose* has therefore two complements: the noun *Charles*, by which it is modified, and the noun *umpire*, which modifies its direct object. So also in "They endeavored to elect Mr. Brown president," in which the verbal *to elect* has two complements: *Mr. Brown*, its direct object, by which it is modified, and *president*, which modifies *Mr. Brown*. It may be seen that—

136. Nouns and pronouns may be the complements of verbs and verbals, and modify their direct objects by representing the same person or thing.

137. Nouns and pronouns thus used are called objective predicate nouns and pronouns.

138. The principal verbs that may join predicate nouns or pronouns to their direct objects are *appoint*, *call*, *crown*, *elect*, *name*, etc.

It may be seen that the complements of incomplete predicates, or verbs, are: 1. Direct objects; 2. Subjective predicate nouns or adjectives; or, 3. Direct objects and objective predicate nouns or adjectives.

EXERCISE.

139. Explain the use of the words in italics, and analyze 1, 2, 3, 5, and 6.

1. Our friends call their home Bellevue.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

Call is the incomplete predicate. Its complements are *home*, a direct object, by which it is modified, and *Bellevue*, an objective predicate noun, which modifies *home*. *Home* is also modified by *their*, a possessive pronoun.

OUTLINE.

S D { *friends* *
 Our P P
 call P + +
 home d o
 their P P
 Bellevue o P *

EXPLANATION.—The objective predicate noun is written under the word that it modifies. The two complement signs show that a direct object and an objective predicate noun are needed to complete the meaning of the predicate.

2. They crowned *Victoria queen*. 3. Name it *Fip*. 4. Why do they wish to appoint *him clerk*? 5. Mohammedans call *Mecca* the holy city. 6. The Democratic party elected *Jackson president*. 7. The inhabitants were talking of naming the place *New Lisbon*.

Indirect Objects.

Remark.—In the sentence “I shall give Anna the ring,” the verb *shall give* is followed by two nouns that modify it, *Anna* and *ring*. The noun *ring* is its direct object. The noun *Anna* modifies the verb by representing the person to whom the action expressed by the verb is done. So also in the sentence “General Grant desired to send him more troops,” the pronoun *him* modifies the verbal *to send* in the same way. It may be seen that—

140. Nouns and pronouns may modify verbs and verbals by representing that to or for which the actions expressed by them are done.

141. Nouns and pronouns thus used are called indirect objects.

142. The indirect object of a verb or a verbal can be found by asking a question with *to whom* or *what* or *for whom* or *what* before

the verb or verbal. If the answer is a noun or a pronoun, it is the *indirect object*; as, "*To whom* did he give the book?" "He gave *me* the book." "*For whom* did Ann's mother promise to buy a doll?" "Ann's mother promised to buy *her* a doll."

143. The principal verbs that may have an indirect object are *allow, ask, bring, buy, get, give, leave, lend, make, offer, pass, pay, present, promise, refuse, send, show, sing, teach, tell, throw, write, etc.*

The indirect object expresses the relation usually expressed by *to* or *for*.

"The indirect object is equivalent to a noun with the preposition *to* or *for* before it; as, 'Give *John* his book.' 'He bears *William* a grudge.' 'Build *me* a house.' '*William* = to William, *John* = to John, *me* = for me.'"—*Morris*.

EXERCISES.

144. Explain the use of the words in italics, and analyze 1, 2, 3, 4, and 6.

1. Give *me* liberty.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

Give is the incomplete predicate. Its complement is *liberty*, a direct object, by which it is modified. It is also modified by *me*, an indirect object.

OUTLINE.

S Im | (*you*)^a
Give *P* +
*me*ⁱ
liberty ^d

2. Did he show *them* Cæsar's wounds? 3. They have grudged *us* contribution.—*Shak.* 4. Send *thy* children food. 5. He tried to secure my vote by promising *me* the position. 6. The Scots sold the *Parliament* their sovereign, Charles I. 7. "Give *us* a song," the soldiers cried.

145. Copy three sentences containing indirect objects of verbs.

Indirect Objects. (Continued.)

Remark.—In the sentence "A man near him was killed," the pronoun *him* modifies the adjective *near* by representing the person whom the man was near. And in "They fought like brave men," the noun *men* modifies the adverb *like* by representing the persons whom they fought like. It may be seen that—

146. Nouns and pronouns may modify a few adjectives and adverbs by representing that to which the quality is directed.

147. Nouns and pronouns thus used are called **indirect objects** of the words that they modify.

148. The **indirect object** of an adjective or an adverb can be found by asking a question with *whom* or *what* before the adjective or the adverb. The answer will be the *indirect object*; as, "*What* did they look *like*?" "*They* looked *like* rose-buds." "*Whom* did they fight *like*?" "*They* fought *like* brave men."

149. The principal adjectives and adverbs that may have an indirect object are *like*, *near*, *nigh*, *opposite*, *unlike*, etc.

"The adjectives *nigh*, *near*, *next*, and *like*, both in adjective and in adverbial use, may be and usually are followed by a dative-objective directly (without the connective *to*)."—*Whitney*.

EXERCISE.

150. Analyze the following sentences :

1. They fought like brave men. 2. A man near him was hurt.

<i>fought</i> <i>like</i> ^{adv} <i>men</i> ^{to} <i>brave</i> ^{adj}	<i>man</i> — <i>A</i> ^{adj} <i>near</i> ^{adj} <i>him</i> ^{to}
--	---

3. No storm like this ever before came so near the city. 4. Burned Marmion's swarthy cheek like fire.—*Scott*. 5. A noise unlike any earthly sound was now heard.

Adverbial Objects.

Remark.—In the sentence "The guns roared all night," the noun *night* modifies the verb *roared* by showing how long the guns roared. In "She tried to walk ten miles," "The river is a mile wide," "He came an hour later," *miles* modifies *to walk* and *mile* modifies *wide* by denoting extent in space, and *hour* modifies *later* by denoting time. It may be seen that—

151. Nouns and pronouns may modify verbs, verbals, adjectives, and adverbs, by *denoting time, extent, degree, manner, or a similar idea*.

152. Nouns and pronouns thus used are called **adverbial objects**.

"We may distinguish a word thus used by calling it an adverbial object."—*Whitney*. "The adverbial objective case."—*Mason*.

The adverbial object, like the indirect, is sometimes incorrectly disposed of as the object of a preposition understood. "But it is not to be supposed that a preposition was thus inserted in early English."—*Abbott*.

EXERCISE.

153. Explain the use of the words in italics, and analyze 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 7.

1. He remained an *hour*. 2. Come an *hour* earlier. 3. It faces

remained
hour ^{a o}
an ^{adj}

earlier ^{adv}
hour ^{a o}
an ^{adj}

both ways. 4. *She* brought *him* the *petition* three *times*. 5. The thieves ran several miles. 6. The *dome* of St. Peter's is fifty *feet* wider and sixty-four *feet* higher than *that* of St. Paul's. 7. Have you ever seen a *river* a *mile* wide?

Objects of Prepositions.

Remark.—In the sentence "Washington died at Mount Vernon," the noun *Mount Vernon* is used with the preposition *at* to form a phrase, and it is called the *object* of the preposition. It may be seen that—

154. Nouns and pronouns may be used as the *objects of prepositions*.

EXERCISES.

155. Explain the use of the words in italics :

1. *Queen Mary* was a *prisoner* in *England* for nineteen *years*.
2. The *Senate* of the *United States* shall be composed of two *Senators* from each *State*, chosen by the *Legislature* thereof, for six *years*.

156. Copy three sentences containing nouns used as the objects of prepositions. Two containing pronouns.

Nouns and Pronouns Used Independently.

Remark.—When we say, "James, where were you?" "Alas, poor Yorick!" "Ah, me!" the words *James*, *Yorick*, and *me* are not connected in construction with any other words, and are said to be used independently. It may be seen that—

157. Nouns and pronouns are sometimes used *independently*.

EXERCISE.

158. Explain the use of the following nouns and pronouns, and analyze 1, 2, 4, and 7.

1. My father, must I stay ?

ORAL ANALYSIS.

Father is a noun used independently. It is modified, etc.

EXPLANATION.—The independent element may also be written above, or to the right.

OUTLINE.

S In | I^a
 | must stay^r
 | father^a " " " " " "
 | My^r P P

2. What mean you, Cæsar ? 3. Ah, poor me ! 4. Boys, do you know your lessons ? 5. Webster's Dictionary. 6. Be still, sad heart ! 7. Come, Mary.

In addition to the foregoing uses, a few pronouns are used also to ask questions ; as, "*Who* discovered Florida ?" (282.)

Some pronouns are also used to introduce clauses, and join them to the words that they modify ; as, "I know *whom* he saw." "The man *that* came yesterday, left this morning." (199 ; 284.)

ADJECTIVES.

159. The chief use of **adjectives** is simply to modify nouns and pronouns.

For illustrations, see the foregoing sentences.

Subjective Predicate Adjectives.

Remark.—In the sentence "William Cullen Bryant was old," the adjective *old* modifies the noun *William Cullen Bryant*, and it is also the complement of the verb *was* (119). It may be seen that—

160. **Adjectives** may be the *complements of verbs* and *modify their subjects*.

161. Adjectives thus used are called **subjective predicate adjectives**.

EXERCISES.

162. Analyze the following sentences:

1. He was called wise.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

Was called is the incomplete predicate. Its complement is *wise*, a subjective predicate adjective, which modifies *he*.

OUTLINE.

S D | *He* *
was called * +
wise * P. *

2. The old foreigner's little daughter was ignorant. 3. The haughty barons were powerful. 4. The day has become pleasant. 5. The wall is six feet high.

163. Copy three sentences containing subjective predicate adjectives.***Subjective Predicate Adjectives.*** (Continued.)

Remark.—In the sentence “He desires to be wise,” the adjective *wise* modifies the pronoun *he*, and is also the complement of the verbal *to be*. It may be seen that—

164. Adjectives may be the *complements* of verbals, and *modify the nouns and pronouns to which the verbals refer*.

165. Adjectives thus used may conveniently be called **subjective predicate adjectives**.

EXERCISE.

166. Explain the use of the words in italics:

1. Do you desire to become *wise*? 2. He was accused of being *ignorant*. 3. Try to be *brave*. 4. *The old* physician objected to being called *aged*.

Adjectives Used Absolutely.

Remark.—In the sentence “To be brave is not easy,” the adjective *brave* is the complement of the verbal *to be*, but it does not modify any preceding noun or pronoun. It may be seen that—

167. Adjectives may be used merely as the *complements of verbals*.

168. In such constructions adjectives are said to be used *absolutely*.

EXERCISE.

169. Explain the use of the words in italics :

1. To be *good* is better than to be called *good*. 2. It requires *care* to be always *consistent*. 3. *The difficulties* in the way of being *successful* are not *slight*.

Objective Predicate Adjectives.

Remark.—It has been shown that in the sentence "He was called great," the adjective *great* is the complement of the verb *was called*, and modifies its subject. In the sentence "They called him great," the adjective *great* is the complement of *called*, and modifies *him*. But *him* is the direct object of *called*, and therefore modifies it, and is also a complement of it. The verb *called* has therefore two complements: the pronoun *him*, by which it is modified, and the adjective *great*, which modifies its direct object. So also in "They tried to keep the water hot," in which the verbal *to keep* has two complements: *water*, its direct object, by which it is modified, and *hot*, which modifies *water*. It may be seen that—

170. Adjectives may be the *complements* of verbs and verbals, and *modify their direct objects*.

171. Adjectives thus used are called **objective predicate adjectives**.

EXERCISE.

172. Analyze the following sentences :

1. We bleached the linen white.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

Bleached is the incomplete predicate. Its complements are *linen*, a direct object, by which it is modified, and *white*, an objective predicate adjective, which modifies *linen*. *Linen* is also modified by *the*, an adjective.

OUTLINE.

S D | *We*[•]
| *bleached* *P* + +
| *linen*[•]
| *the* *adj*
| *white* *P*[•]

2. The buffaloes tramped the ground hard. 3. The storm stripped the trees naked. 4. Can you plane this board smooth? 5. They left him dead.

In addition to the foregoing uses, a few adjectives are used also to ask questions; as, "*Which* route will you take?" (463, 3.)

Some adjectives are used also to introduce clauses and join them to the words that the clauses modify; as, "I shall take *what* money is needed." "Do you know *which* route you will take?" (199; 463, 4.)

ADVERBS.

173. The chief use of **adverbs** is to modify verbs, verbals, adjectives, and adverbs.

For illustrations, see the foregoing sentences.

Adverbs Modifying Nouns and Pronouns.

Remark.—In "Even me," the adverb *even* is used to render the pronoun *me* more emphatic, and it is said to modify the pronoun. And in the sentence "Only Major Washington escaped unharmed," the adverb *only* is used in the same way to modify the noun *Major Washington*. It may be seen that—

174. Some **adverbs** may *modify nouns and pronouns*.

175. The adverbs *only*, *even*, and *merely* are frequently used for this purpose; and when thus used, they are called **adverbs of emphasis**.

EXERCISE.

176. *Analyze the following sentences:*

1. Even children sometimes deceive us.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

Children is modified by *even*, an adverb of emphasis.

OUTLINE.

children
Even adv. em

2. Even philosophers are sometimes mistaken. 3. They were merely children. 4. I saw him only. 5. Only I saw him.

Adverbs are sometimes used to modify phrases and clauses; as, "It fell *just below the falls*." "*Even if I were a beggar*," etc. Sometimes sentences are said to be modified by adverbs; as, "*Truly*, this is the Son of God."

The Adverb of Position.

Remark.—In the sentence “No one is here,” the subject is found in its usual place before the predicate. But when the sentence begins with *there*, as in “There is no one here,” the subject is placed after the predicate. It may be seen that—

177. The adverb **there** is sometimes used simply to change the relative position of the subject and predicate of a sentence.

178. When thus used, *there* is called an **adverb of position**.

EXERCISE.

179. Analyze the following sentences :

1. There is no one here.

OUTLINE.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

There is an adverb of position. It is used to change the relative position of *one* and *is*. *One* is the subject, etc.

S D	There ^{adv p}	
	one _—	
	is _—	no ^{adv}
		here ^{adv}

2. There are twenty-five pupils here. 3. There is rest there.

In addition to the foregoing uses, a few adverbs are used also to ask questions; as, “*When* was Florida discovered?” (488, 1.)

Some adverbs are used also to introduce clauses, and join them to the words that the clauses modify; as, “No one knows *when* the hour of death will come.” (488, 2.)

VERBALS.**Verbals Used as Nouns.****EXERCISES.**

180. Explain the use of the following verbals, and analyze 1, 2, 3, 5, and 7.

1. This day will I begin to magnify thee.—*Joshua iii*, 7.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

Will begin is the incomplete predicate. Its complement is *to magnify*, an incomplete verbal used as a direct object, by which it is modified. The complement of *to magnify* is *thee*, etc.

OUTLINE.

S D | *I*°
will begin *r* +
to magnify *vi d* ° +
thee *d* °
day *s* °
This *adj*

2. *To do* right is not easy. 3. *Trying to do* a good deed is *doing* a good deed. 4. What do you expect to gain by *trying* to defeat the measure? 5. It is wrong to steal.¹ 6. Hornblende differs from mica in being brittle. 7. It is a difficult task to root out old errors.

1. *Vl. a. n.*, modifying *it*.

181. Copy two sentences containing verbals used as nouns.

Verbals Used as Adjectives.

EXERCISES.

182. Explain the use of the following verbals, and analyze 1, 2, 4, and 6.

1. The British Government made extensive preparations *to crush* the rebellion.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

Preparations is modified by *extensive*, an adjective, and *to crush*, an incomplete verbal used as an adjective, etc.

OUTLINE.

preparations
extensive *adj*
to crush *vi adj* +

2. A soldier lay *dying*. 3. The slate used for roofing houses is a kind of rock. 4. A kind act done quickly is done twice. 5. Magnetite is an iron-black ore of iron, having a black powder.—*Dana*. 6. A man trying to do his duty is a man to be admired. 7. Ney's passage of the frozen Dnieper was one of the most daring feats recorded in history.

183. Copy two sentences containing verbals used as adjectives.

Verbals Used as Adverbs.

EXERCISES.

184. Analyze the following sentences:

1. Marmion stopped *to bid* adieu. 2. Mortier abandoned the

city to join Napoleon. 3. *Hearing* a noise, I looked around. 4. The man came running. 5. Jo is very glad to see his old friend. 6. To obtain money to join the First Crusade, Robert sold his duchy.

185. *Copy two sentences containing verbals used as adverbs.*

Verbals. (Continued.)

(a) **Analyze the following sentences :**

1. James wishes to become a scholar.

OUTLINE.

$S D \left| \begin{array}{l} \text{James}^s \\ \text{wishes}^{p+} \\ \text{to become}^{vi\ d\ o\ +} \\ \text{scholar}^{n\ p\ *} \\ a^{adj} \end{array} \right.$

ORAL ANALYSIS.

The complement of *to become* is *scholar*, a subjective predicate noun, which modifies *James*.

2. To become a scholar requires study.

OUTLINE.

$S D \left| \begin{array}{l} \text{To become}^{vi\ s\ +} \\ \text{scholar}^{n\ s\ b} \\ a^{adj} \\ \text{requires}^{p+} \\ \text{study}^{d\ o} \end{array} \right.$

ORAL ANALYSIS.

To become is an incomplete verbal used as the subject. Its complement is *scholar*, a noun used absolutely.

3. They endeavored to elect Mr. Brown president.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

Endeavored is the incomplete predicate. Its complement is *to elect*, an incomplete verbal used as the direct object, by which it is modified. The complements of *to elect* are *Mr. Brown*, a direct object, by which it is modified, and *president*, an objective predicate noun, which modifies *Mr. Brown*.

OUTLINE.

$S D \left| \begin{array}{l} \text{They}^s \\ \text{endeavored}^{p+} \\ \text{to elect}^{vi\ d\ o\ +\ +} \\ \text{Mr. Brown}^{d\ o} \\ \text{president}^{o\ p\ *} \end{array} \right.$

4. Some persons wished to crown Washington king. 5. We tried to bleach the linen white.¹ 6. Washington did not desire to be crowned king. 7. To be called a Christian was once a reproach. 8. To be employed is to be happy.² 9. How often we resolve to be better!³ 10. Who were the first persons to be called Christians?⁴

1. 170. 2. *Adj. ab.*, 167. 3. 164. 4. 125.

CO-ORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

Conjunctions Joining Words.

EXERCISES.

186. Analyze the following sentences :

1. When did the French conquer Milan and Genoa ?

ORAL ANALYSIS.

Did conquer is the incomplete predicate. Its complements are *Milan* and *Genoa*, direct objects, by which it is modified. They are joined by *and*, a co-ordinate conjunction.

EXPLANATION.—Co-ordinate conjunctions are written between the parts that they join, and begin about the space of two letters to the right. A dotted line connects the co-ordinate parts.

OUTLINE.

S In | *French*[•]
 | *the*^{ad};
 | *did conquer*^P +
 | *Milan*^d °
 | *and*^c °
 | *Genoa*^d °
 | *When*^{ad}

2. They are wise and honorable men.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

Men is modified by *wise* and *honorable*, adjectives joined by *and*, a co-ordinate conjunction.

OUTLINE.

men—
 | *wise*^{ad};
 | *and*^c °
 | *honorable*^{ad};

3. We are two travelers, Roger and I. 4. Some days must be dark and dreary. 5. Slowly and sadly we laid him down. 6. Saturn has large rings and belts.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

Rings and *belts* are joined by *and*, a co-ordinate conjunction, and modified by *large*, an adjective.

EXPLANATION.—The sign + is used as a reference-sign when a word modifies two or more words. In the foregoing sentence, the position of *large* shows that it modifies *rings*; the sign before it, in connection with the sign under *belts*, shows that it also modifies *belts*.

OUTLINE.

S D | *Saturn*[•]
 | *has*^P +
 | *rings*^d °
 | + ' *large*^{ad};
 | *and*^c °
 | *belts*^d °
 | + '

Reference-signs are used in pairs. Each one of a pair is marked with a prime ('), a second ("), or a third (""), for convenience of reference. (It will be observed that the complement-sign is smaller than the reference-sign, and is not marked with a prime, etc.)

7. Old soldiers fight very cautiously as well as¹ courageously.
 8. Do you know the moon's weight and size? 9. How regularly and rapidly the earth moves! 10. Loan oft loses both² itself and friend.—*Shak.*

1. *As well as* is a co-ordinate conjunction. 2. *Both* modifies the words joined by *and*.

187. Copy a sentence in which nouns are joined by a co-ordinate conjunction. One in which adjectives are joined. One in which adverbs are joined.

Co-ordinate conjunctions are also used to join—

Phrases; as, "His goodness is seen *in the heavens above and in the earth beneath.*" (193, 3.)

Sentences; as, "*Slight small injuries, and they will become none at all.*"—*Fuller.* (214, 3.)

Clauses; as, "John the Good was succeeded by his son Charles the Wise, *who was of a peaceful disposition, and whose measures did much to restore prosperity in France.*" (207, 5.)

Conjunctions Introducing Sentences.

EXERCISE.

188. Analyze the following sentences:

1. But he came not.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

This is a simple, declarative sentence. *But* is a co-ordinate conjunction; it is used simply to introduce the sentence. *He* is the subject, etc.

OUTLINE.

But °°
SD | *he* °
 came °
 not °°

2. And Maud forgot her brier-torn gown,
 And her graceful ankles, bare and brown.
 3. He left. But did he remain away?¹

1. No. 3 contains two sentences not connected.

RESPONSIVES AND INTERJECTIONS.

EXERCISE.

189. Analyze the following sentences containing responsives and interjections:

1. Has he gone ? Yes.

2. He came too late, alas !

OUTLINES.

OUTLINE.

S In ^{*he*}
Has gone ? *S In* ^{*he*}
Yes

S D ^{*He*}
came ^{*late*}
alas ^{*too*}

ORAL ANALYSIS.—*Yes* is a responsive.

3. Are our minds limited ? Yes. 4. Can matter be destroyed ?

No. 5. Oh, name him not ! 6. Alas, Cæsar must bleed !

CHIEF USES OF PHRASES.

PREPOSITIONS.

Remark.—In the sentence “Education is the evolution of power,” the preposition *of* introduces the phrase *of power*, and joins it to the noun *evolution*, which the phrase modifies. And in “Toward the earth’s center is called down,” the preposition *toward* introduces the phrase *toward center*. It may be seen that—

190. Phrases are introduced by *prepositions*.

PHRASES.

Phrases Used as Adjectives.

EXERCISES.

191. Analyze the following sentences :

1. The layers of most stratified rocks were originally horizontal.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

OUTLINE.

Layers is the subject. It is modified by *the*, an adjective, and *of rocks*, a phrase used as an adjective. *Of* is a preposition, and *rocks* is its object.

S D ^{*layers*}
^{*The*}
^{*of*} ^{*rocks*}
^{*most*}
^{*stratified*}
^{*were*} ^{*originally*}
^{*horizontal*}

EXPLANATION.—Phrases are written under the words that they modify, the words introducing them beginning about the space of four letters to the right.

2. The great hope of society is individual character.—*Channing*. 3. A bird in the hand is worth¹ two in the bush. 4. The Cañon of the Colorado is a gorge two hundred miles² long.³ 5. Igneous rocks cover thousands of square miles of the western slope of the Rocky Mountains.

1. *S. p. a.* 2. *A. o. of long.* 3. It modifies *gorge*.

192. Copy three sentences containing phrases used as adjectives.

Phrases Used as Adverbs.

EXERCISES.

193. Analyze the following sentences :

1. Perfection is attained by slow degrees. 2. By his victory at Rossbach, Frederick the Great¹ recovered the whole of Saxony.

OUTLINE.
SD | *Perfection*[°]
 | *is attained*[°]
 | *by*[°] *degrees*[°]
 ad° *slow*^{ad°}

3. Through fields and through forests he bounded away.

4. It lies just below the falls.

OUTLINE.
bounded[°]
 | *away*^{ad°}
 | *Through*[°] *fields*[°]
 ad°
 | *and*^{c°}
 | *through*[°] *forests*[°]
 ad°

OUTLINE.
below[°] *falls*[°]
 ad° *the*^{ad°}
 | *just*^{ad°}

ORAL ANALYSIS.—*Below falls* is modified by *just*, an adverb.

5. They marched up and down the hill.

6. Tempering is the process of hardening or softening substances.

OUTLINE.
SD | *They*[°]
 | *marched*[°]
 up[°] *+*[°]
 and^{c°}
 down[°] *+*[°] *hill*[°]
 the^{ad°}

OUTLINE.
 process
 | *of*[°] *hardening*^{ad°} *+*[°]
 +[°]
 or^{c°}
 | *softening*^{ad°} *+*[°]
 ad° *+*[°] *substances*^{d°}

7. Leaves expose the sap of plants to air and light. 8. Even from out² thy slime the monsters of the deep are made. 9. Learn to write business papers before attempting to transact business.

10. These delicacies he heaped with glowing hand
On golden dishes and in baskets bright
Of wreathed silver.—*Keats*.

1. *Frederick the Great* is the subject. 2. *From out* is a preposition.

194. Copy three sentences containing phrases used as adverbs.

Phrases Used as Nouns.

EXERCISE.

195. Analyze—

1. Toward the earth's center is called down. 2. Toward London is east. 3. He came from among the people.¹

1. *Among people* is the object of *from*.
Or, call *from among* a preposition.

OUTLINE.

SD	Toward ^p center ^o
	" earth's ^p "
	the ^{adj}
	is called ^p +
	down ^p

Phrases Used Independently.

EXERCISE.

196. Analyze—

1. In a word, you are wrong.¹

1. By an obvious ellipsis, the phrase is made independent.

OUTLINE.

SD	you ^o
	are ^p +
	wrong ^p
	In ^p word ^o
	in ^o a ^{adj}

CHIEF USES OF CLAUSES. ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIVES.

Remark.—In the sentence "I know that exercise is beneficial," the subordinate conjunction *that* introduces the clause *that exercise is beneficial*, and joins it to the verb *know*, which the clause modifies. Other parts of speech may be used for the same purpose. Thus, in the sentence "I know whom you saw," the clause *whom you saw* modifies the verb *know*, to which it is joined by the pronoun *whom*. In the sentence "I can not see what flowers are at my feet," the clause *what*

flowers are at my feet modifies the verb *can see*, to which it is joined by the adjective *what*. And in the sentence "The tree lies where it fell," the clause *where it fell* modifies the verb *lies*, to which it is joined by the adverb *where*. It may be seen that—

197. Clauses may be introduced by *subordinate conjunctions, pronouns, adjectives, or adverbs*.

198. Words that introduce clauses and join them to the words that they modify, may be called **subordinate conjunctives**.

Remember that a subordinate conjunctive is a part of the clause which it introduces; and that if it is a pronoun, an adjective, or an adverb, it is construed with some word in the clause.

199. The following words are among those frequently used to introduce clauses, and join them to the words that they modify:

Subordinate conjunctions: *if, because, that, than, unless, etc.*

Pronouns: *who, which, what, that, whoever, etc.*

Adjectives: *which, whichever, what, whatever, etc.*

Adverbs: *when, where, as, before, how, etc.*

EXERCISES.

200. *Point out six clauses in the following sentences, the words that they modify, and the subordinate conjunctives that introduce them:*

1. He liveth long who liveth well. 2. Praise God, from whom all blessings flow. 3. Who shall decide when doctors disagree?—*Pope*. 4. The man who has planted a garden feels that he has done something for the good of the world.—*Warner*. 5. I can not see what flowers are at my feet.—*Keats*.

201. *Copy two sentences containing subordinate conjunctions. Two containing conjunctive pronouns. Two containing conjunctive adverbs.*

SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIVES. (*Continued.*)

Remark.—In the sentence "That the earth is round is well known," the clause *that the earth is round* is the subject of the verb *is known*. The subordinate conjunction *that* is used simply to introduce

the clause. The pronoun *what* and the adverb *why* are used for the same purpose in "What you do, should be done quickly;" "Why he went, is evident." It may be seen that—

202. Subordinate conjunctives are sometimes used simply to introduce clauses.

CLAUSES.

Clauses Used as Adjectives.

EXERCISES.

203. Analyze the following sentences :

1. An idler is a watch that wants both hands.—*Cowper.*

ORAL ANALYSIS.

This is a complex, declarative sentence, etc. *Watch* is modified by *a*, an adjective, and *that wants both hands*, a clause used as an adjective. *That* is the subject of the clause; it is used also as a subordinate conjunctive. *Wants* is the incomplete predicate, etc.

OUTLINE.

Cx D | idler^s
 An^{adj}
 is L +
 watch^s P^m
 a^{adj}
 adj | that^{...}
 wants^s P⁺
 hands^s °
 both^s adj

EXPLANATION.—In outlining a clause, first select the word that it modifies, or with which it is construed. Then select its subject and predicate, and the word by which it is introduced. Clauses are written under the words that they modify, beginning about the space of four letters to the right.

2. Those who play with edge-tools must expect to be cut.

3. No pleasure from which¹ our health suffers is innocent. 4. The province was named Pennsylvania, which means Penn's woods. 5. Many of the men whose² inventions have been of great practical value were mechanics. 6. I am monarch of all I survey. 7. Kindness is the golden chain by which society is bound together.—*Goethe.* 8. The sorrow for the dead³ is the only sorrow from which we refuse to be divorced.—*Irving.* 9. General Kléber, whom Napo-

OUTLINES.

adj | health^s
 our^s P^P
 suffers^s P^m
 from^s which^{...}
 adj^s

of all—
adj | I^s
 survey^s P⁺
 (that)^s ° ° °

leon had left in command of the French army in Egypt, was assassinated by a fanatical Mohammedan.

10. We paused amid the pines that stood
The giants⁴ of the waste.—*Shelley*.

1. Notice carefully the place of *from which* in the outline. 2. *P. p., s. c.*
3. Object of *for*. 4. 121.

204. Copy three sentences containing clauses used as adjectives.

Clauses Used as Adverbs.

EXERCISES.

205. Analyze the following sentences :

1. Because the cur has bitten me,
must I bite the cur ?

ORAL ANALYSIS.

Must bite is also modified by *because the cur has bitten me*, a clause used as an adverb. *Because* is a subordinate conjunction. *Cur* is the subject of the clause, etc.

OUTLINE.

Cx In | I^s
must bite P⁺
| cur^{-d o}
| the^{adv}
| Because^{cc}
adv | cur^{-s}
| the^{adv}
| has bitten P⁺
| me^{d o}

2. As a man thinketh in his
heart, so is he.—*See Prov. xxiii, 7.*

3. Contentment is better than
wealth.¹ 4. Substances that rise in
air are lighter than air. 5. It bear-
eth the name of Vanity Fair, be-
cause the town where² it is kept
is lighter than vanity.—*Bunyan*.

6. Is it as wise to be great as it is to be good ?

OUTLINE.

Cx D | he^s
is P⁻
so adv
adv | man^s
| a^{adv}
| thinketh P⁻
| As^{adv cc}
| in P heart^o
adv | his P P

wise^{s P a}
as^{adv}

it^s—
to be^{cc a n} +
great^{adv ab}

(wise)^{s P a}
as^{adv cc}

7. Come as the winds come when navies are stranded.

| winds
| come
as^{adv cc}

| navies
| are stranded
when^{adv cc}

8. Love thy neighbor as thyself.* 9. The stoical scheme of sup-
plying our wants by lopping off our desires, is like 'cutting' off
our feet when we want shoes.—*Swift*.

10. Some murmur, when their sky is clear
And wholly bright to view,
If one small speck of dark appear
In their great heaven of blue.—*Trench*.

1. *Than wealth (is good)* modifies *better*. 2. *Where* introduces an adjective
clause. 3. 89. 4. 180. 5. *VI*, t. o.

206. Copy three sentences containing clauses used as ad-
verbs.

Clauses Used as Nouns.

EXERCISES.

207. Analyze the following sentences :

1. Do you believe that the earth is round ?

ORAL ANALYSIS.

This is a complex, interrogative sen-
tence. *You* is the subject. *Do believe*
is the incomplete predicate. Its comple-
ment is *that the earth is round*, a clause
used as a direct object, by which it is
modified. *That* is a subordinate con-
junction. *Earth* is the subject of the
clause, etc.

OUTLINE.

Cx In | you^s
Do believe^p +
| that^{co}
| earth^s
| the^{adj}
| is^p +
| round^p

2. That the earth is round is well known.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

This is a complex, declarative sentence.
That the earth is round is a clause used as
the subject. *That* is a subordinate conjunc-
tion. *Earth* is the subject of the clause, etc.
Is known is the predicate of the sentence, etc.

OUTLINE.

Cx D | That^{co}
| earth^s
| the^{adj}
| is^p +
| round^p
| is known^p
| well^{adv}

SUGGESTION.—If you find that it is difficult to
outline some of the following sentences, give the
written construction of each word separately, and you will then be able to
see how the sentence is constructed. Frequently, the most difficult word to
dispose of is the subordinate conjunctive. Notice whether it is a pure sub-
ordinate conjunction, or a pronoun, adjective, or adverb.

3. Where Homer was born is unknown.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

Was born is the predicate; it is modified by *where*, an adverb. *Where* is used also as a subordinate conjunctive.

4. "My diplomacy," said a famous statesman, "consists in saying just what I mean."

ORAL ANALYSIS.

What I mean is modified by *just*, an adverb of emphasis.

5. Consider well what your strength is equal to, and what exceeds your ability.—*Horace*.

OUTLINE.

Cx Im | (you) ^s
 Consider ^P +
 well ^{adv}
 | strength ^s
 do | your ^P P
 is ^P +
 equal ^P P
 to ^P what ^{adv}
 and ^{adv}
 do | what ^{adv}
 exceeds ^P +
 ability ^{adv}
 your ^P P

OUTLINE.

Cx D | ^s Homer ^s
 was born ^P
 Where ^{adv} . . .
 is ^P +
 unknown ^P P

OUTLINE.

in ^P saying ^{adv} +
 I ^s
 + ^{adv} mean ^P +
 what ^{adv} . . .
 + 'just ^{adv} em

6. Whatever is, is right.

OUTLINE.

Cx D | ^s Whatever ^{adv} . . .
 is ^P
 is ^P +
 right ^P P

7. Whatever you do, do as well as you can.

OUTLINE.

Cx Im | (you) ^s
 do ^P +
 do ^P +
 do ^P +
 Whatever ^{adv} . . .
 well ^{adv}
 as ^{adv}
 do ^P +
 you ^s
 can (do) ^P +
 (it) ^{adv}
 (well) ^{adv}
 as ^{adv} . . .

8. That will depend on what he receives.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

Will depend is modified by *on what he receives*, a phrase used as an adverb. *On* is a preposition, and *what he receives* is a clause used as its object, etc.

OUTLINE.

Cx D | That ^s
 will depend ^P
 on ^P | he ^s
 adv | receives ^P +
 what ^{adv} . . .

9. Whoso keepeth the law, is a wise son.—*Prov. xvi, 7*.
 10. They will take what is needed. 11. They will take what they need. 12. This will depend on who the trustees are. 13. Shame

may restrain what law does not prohibit.—*Seneca*. 14. That you have wronged me doth appear in this.—*Shak*. 15. We attend to what we hear more closely than to what we read.—*Wickersham*.

208. Copy two sentences containing clauses used as nouns.

Analysis. (Continued.)

(a) **Analyze the following sentences :**

1. If you wish to enjoy the pleasure of resting, you must work.
2. Come while our voices are blended in song.—*Holmes*. 3. If England could have communicated with America by telegraph, the battle of New Orleans would not have been fought.¹ 4. Whither^a I go ye can not come. 5. We know what^a master laid thy keel.—*Longfellow*. 6. If you wish to find the best apples in the orchard, go to the tree under^a which^a the clubs lie.
7. Justice, while she winks at crimes,
Stumbles on innocence sometimes.—*Butler*.
8. What is the name that is given to instruments used for measuring heat? 9. Write it on your heart that^a every day is the best^a in the year.—*Emerson*. 10. Benedict Arnold, who had incurred vast debts by his extravagance, was charged by Congress with having committed fraud while^a military governor of Philadelphia.
1. Why not? 2. *Adv., s. c.* 3. *What (adj., s. c.)* modifies *master*, and joins the clause to *know*. 4. The preposition *under* introduces the phrase *under which*, and joins it to *lie*. 5. *Which* introduces the clause *under which the clubs lie*, and joins it to *tree*. 6. The clause introduced by *that* is used in apposition with *it (a n)*. 7. Supply *day*. 8. What two words must be supplied?

ABRIDGED CLAUSES.

209. The three essential parts of an unabridged clause are the *subject*, the *predicate*, and the *subordinate conjunctive*. (56, 58.)

Sometimes the subordinate conjunctive is omitted, and should be supplied ; as, "I am sure (*that*) he did it." "The soldiers (*that*) they captured were Hessians." "Were I you, I would go" (= *If* I were you, I would go).

210. Some clauses have only two essential parts, the *subject* and the *predicate*. They are called **abridged clauses**.

EXAMPLES.—“I desire *him to go*.” “*Spring having come*, all nature is clothed in beauty.” “Let *him go*.”

211. The verbs *believe*, *consider*, *declare*, *make*, *think*, and some others, are sometimes followed by abridged clauses in which the verb *to be* is understood ; as, “I believed him my friend” (= I believed him *to be* my friend). “He thought me *(to be)* wrong.”

In some sentences an abridged clause can be used in place of a clause containing three essential parts without varying the sense ; as, “I believed *him to be dead*” (= *that he was dead*). “*Spring having come*, all nature is clothed in beauty” (= *As spring has come*, etc.). “He finds *the task to be difficult*” (= *that the task is difficult*). “I find *them (to be) good men and true*” (= *that they are*, etc.). “The engineer ordered *the signal to be given*” (= *that the signal be given*). “*The troops were reported to have been engaged*” (= *That the troops were engaged*, was reported).

But it is often impossible to substitute an unabridged clause for the abridged clause without changing the sense, and sometimes no substitution can be made. EXAMPLES.—“He felt *himself sinking*” (almost equivalent to “He felt *that he was sinking*”). “I heard *her sing*” (not “I heard *that she sang*”). “I saw *them run*.” “I saw *them running*.” “Let us *go*.” “Hath not old custom made *this life (to be) more sweet?*” “It is too warm for *them to travel*.”

It must be remembered (1) that the term *abridged clause* is appropriately applied to these clauses because they have but *two essential parts*, and (2) that the abridged clause is not a mere abridgment of a clause.

Abridged Clauses Used as Adverbs.

EXERCISE.

212. Analyze the following sentences :

1. This done, repair to Pompey's porch.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

Repair is also modified by *this being done*, an abridged clause used as an adverb. *This* is the subject, and *being done* is the predicate, *being* understood.

OUTLINE.

Cx Im | (you) *
 | repair *
 | to * porch *
 | ad * Pompey's * *
 | This *
 | ad * (being) done *

2. Spring having come, all nature is clothed in beauty.
3. Shame being lost, all virtue is lost.
4. He being a foreigner, his family was protected.
5. This said, he sat down.
6. The ammunition being exhausted, the troops surrendered.
7. You sleep in

- peace, the tyrant being slain.—*Shak.* 8. The cat away, the mice play. 9. These injuries having been comforted internally, Mr. Pecksniff having been comforted externally, they sat down.
10. My story being done,
She gave me for my pains a world of sighs.—*Shak.*

Abridged Clauses Used as Nouns.

EXERCISE.

213. Analyze the following sentences :

1. Do you believe the earth to be round ?

ORAL ANALYSIS.

Do believe is the incomplete predicate. Its complement is *the earth to be round*, an abridged clause used as the direct object, by which it is modified. *Earth* is the subject of the clause, etc.

OUTLINE.

Cx In | you^s
Do believe^{p+}
do | earth^s
the^{adj}
to be^{p+}
round^{s p}

2. His being a foreigner protected him.

OUTLINE.

Cx D | s | His^s
being^{p+}
foreigner^{s p}
a^{adj}
protected^{p+}
him^{do}

3. The Cretans were believed to be liars.

OUTLINE.

Cx D | s | Cretans^s
The^{adj}
to be^{p+}
liars^{s p}
were believed^p

4. It is too warm for them to travel.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

Warm is modified by *too*, an adverb, and *for them to travel*, a phrase used as an adverb. *For* is a preposition, and *them to travel* is an abridged clause used as its object. *Them* is the subject of the clause, and *to travel* is the predicate.

OUTLINE.

Cx D | It^s
is^{p+}
warm^{s p}
too^{adv}
for^p | them^s
to travel^p
adv

5. Let us go.¹ 6. The rain causes the grass to grow. 7. He felt himself sinking. 8. He finds the task² difficult. 9. We did not hear of the troops crossing the river.³ 10. All men think all

men mortal but themselves.—*Young*. 11. They made Claudius emperor. 12. Claudius was made emperor.* 13. They are known to have perished among the icebergs. 14. Success depends upon his remaining true⁴ to the cause.* 15. A lively writer has not hesitated to pronounce⁶ Colchis the Holland of antiquity.*

1. *Go* is the predicate of the clause, not *to go*. 2. Supply *to be*. 3. Is this sentence ambiguous? 4. *S. p. a.* 5. See Outline 4. The phrase *to cause* modifies *true*. 6. *Vl., adv.* 7. What must be supplied?

Sometimes, though rarely, abridged clauses are used as *adjectives*.

ANALYSIS OF COMPOUND SENTENCES.

EXERCISE.

214. Analyze the following sentences :

1. Doubt vanished with Smoke, and Hope began with Flame.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

This is a compound sentence, consisting of two members joined by *and*, a co-ordinate conjunction.

The first member is a simple, declarative sentence. *Doubt* is the subject. *Vanished* is the predicate, etc.

The second member is a simple, declarative sentence. *Hope* is the subject, etc.

OUTLINE.

1 S D | *Doubt* °
 vanished °
 with ° *Smoke* °
Cd | *and* ° °
2 S D | *Hope* °
 began °
 with ° *Flame* °
 adv

2. To doubt is worse than to have lost ; and to despair is but to antedate those miseries that must fall on us.—*Massinger*.

OUTLINE.

1 Cx D | *To doubt* ° °
 is ° +
 worse ° ° °
 adv | *than* ° °
 | *to have lost* ° °
 | (is) ° +
Cd | *and* ° ° (bad) ° ° °
+ '
2 Cx D | *to despair* ° °
 is ° +
 to antedate ° ° ° +
 but ° ° ° °
 miseries ° °
 those ° ° °
 adv | *that* ° ° °
 | *must fall* °
 on ° ° °
 adv

EXPLANATION.—Space may sometimes be economized by writing the second member of a compound sentence to the right of the first, as shown above. The sign + ' indicates the connection between the two members.

3. Art is long and Time is fleeting,
And our hearts, though stout and brave,
Still, like muffled drums, are beating
Funeral marches to the grave.—*Longfellow*.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

This is a compound sentence, consisting of two members joined by *and*, a co-ordinate conjunction.

The first member is a compound sentence, consisting of two members joined by *and*, a co-ordinate conjunction. The first member of this sentence is a simple, declarative sentence, etc. The second member is a simple, declarative sentence, etc.

The second member of the sentence is a complex, declarative sentence, etc.

EXPLANATION.—The marks ('), ("), (""), etc., are used when the members of a sentence are compound, to show the relative rank of the parts joined. Thus "1' Cd" and "2' Cx D" are subordinate to "Cd," and co-ordinate with each other. "1" S D" and "2" S D" are subordinate to "1' Cd" and co-ordinate with each other. It will be seen that it is not necessary to use these marks unless a sentence contains one or more *compound members*.

OUTLINE.

1" S D		Art'
		is L +
1' Cd		long' p a
		and' c c
2" S D		Time'
		is L +
Cd		fleeting' p a
		And' c c
2' Cx D		hearts'
		our' p p
		are beating' p +
		marches' d o
		Funeral' adj
		to' p grave'
		Still' adj adj the' adj
		like' adj
		drums' i o
		muffled' adj
		though' c c
adv		(they)'
		(are) L +
		stout' p a
		and' c c
		brave' p a

4. God made the country, and man made the town.—*Cooper*.
5. Good nature will supply the place of beauty, but beauty can not long supply the place of good nature.—*Addison*. 6. Difficulties strengthen the mind, as well as¹ labor does the body.—*Seneca*.
7. What we know here is very little ; but what we are ignorant of is immense.—*Laplace*.

8. Be thou the first true merit to befriend ;

His praise is lost, who stays till all commend.—*Pope*.

9. Napoleon's troops fought in bright fields, where every helmet caught some beams of glory, but the British soldier conquered under the cool shade of aristocracy ; no honors awaited his daring,

no dispatch gave his name to the applauses of his countrymen ; his life of danger and hardship was uncheered by hope, his death unnoticed.—*Napier*.

1. See 186, 7.

Compound Sentences with Common Elements.

EXERCISE.

(a) **Analyze the following sentences :**

1. Here the old man toiled and his children thoughtlessly played.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

This is a compound sentence, consisting of two members joined by *and*, a co-ordinate conjunction, and containing an element common to both members.

The first member is a simple, declarative sentence, etc. *Toiled* is the predicate.

The second member is a simple, declarative sentence, etc. *Played* is the predicate ; it is modified by *thoughtlessly*, an adverb.

Toiled and *played* are modified by *here*, an adverb.

2. When the president came, the audience took their seats and the speaker began to deliver his address.

8. I slip, I slide, I gleam, I glance,
Among my skimming swallows.—*Tennyson*.

OUTLINE.

	<i>man</i> ²
1 S D	<i>The</i> ^{adj}
	<i>old</i> ^{adj}
	<i>toiled</i> ^P
Cd	+ '
	<i>and</i> ^c
	<i>children</i> ^c
2 S D	<i>his</i> ^{P P}
	<i>played</i> ^P
	<i>thoughtlessly</i> ^{adv}
	+ ' <i>Here</i> ^{adv}

Contracted Compound Sentences.

EXERCISE.

(b) **Analyze the following sentences :**

1. Time and tide wait for no man.

ORAL ANALYSIS.

This is a contracted compound, declarative sentence. *Time* and *tide* are the subjects, joined by *and*, a co-ordinate conjunction, etc.

OUTLINE.

	<i>Time</i> ^c
	<i>and</i> ^c
	<i>tide</i> ^c
C Cd D	<i>wait</i> ^P
	<i>for</i> ^P <i>man</i> ²
	^{adv} ^{no} ^{adv}

2. You are young, and have the world before you ; stoop as you go through it, and you will miss many a hard thump.—*Mather*.
3. He who would free from malice pass his days,
Must live obscure, and never merit praise.—*Gay*.

Partial compound sentences are analyzed like contracted compound sentences.

ANALYSIS. (Continued.)

(c) Analyze the following sentences :

1. The lightest known substance is hydrogen. 2. O Liberty ! my spirit felt thee there.—*Coleridge*. 3. My motto : Work and wait.
4. Night's candles are burnt out, and jocund day
Stands tiptoe on the distant mountain-tops.—*Shak*.
5. The noblest mind the best contentment has.—*Spenser*. 6. Conscience, her first law broken, wounded lies. 7. She let no morsel from her lip fall.—*Chaucer*.
8. The fittest place where man can die
Is where he dies for man.—*Barry*.
9. Tin and lead form the valuable alloy called solder. 10. What a world of merriment their melody foretells !—*Poe*. 11. I am satisfied that we are less convinced by what we hear than by what we see.—*Herodotus*. 12. Roll on, thou deep and dark-blue Ocean, roll !—*Byron*.
13. Ay ! and should not life be gay ?
Yes, Aurelia—come away.—*Dyer*.
14. To refuse to do a bad thing is to do a good one.—*Westlake*.
15. Character is what we are ; reputation, what others think us to be. 16. Gyges was seen by no one, but he himself saw all things.—*Cicero*.
17. Trust no Future, howe'er pleasant !
Let the dead Past bury its dead !—*Longfellow*.
18. Be not deceived : evil communications corrupt good manners.—*1 Cor. xv, 33*. 19. Ground-glass globes are made by forcing a jet of sand against the glass. 20. If you would do what you should not, you must bear what you would not.—*Franklin*.
21. New laws from him who reigns new minds may raise
In us who serve.—*Milton*.

22. A good name is worth gold.—*Shak.* 23. The tutor breakfasts on coffee made of beans,edulcorated with milk watered to the verge of transparency.—*Holmes.*

24. How sharper than a serpent's tooth it is
To have a thankless child.—*Shak.*

25. Any coward can fight a battle when he's sure of winning ; but give me the man who has pluck to fight when he's sure of losing.—*George Eliot.* 26. A ruler who appoints any man to an office, when there is in his dominion another man better qualified for it, sins against God and against the state.—*Koran.*

27. Then with eyes that saw not, I kissed her ;
And she, kissing back, could not know
That my kiss was given to her sister,
Folded close under deepening snow.—*Lowell.*

28. The French National Convention, which assembled at Paris in 1792, decreed that royalty was abolished in France, and thereafter time, instead of being reckoned from the birth of the Saviour, should be reckoned from the 22d of September, 1792, the birthday of the French Republic. 29. The cynic who twitted Aristippus by observing that the philosopher who could dine on herbs might despise the company of a king, was well replied to by Aristippus when he said that the philosopher who could enjoy the company of a king might also despise a dinner of herbs.

30. New occasions teach new duties ; Time makes ancient good uncouth ;

They must upward still and onward, who would keep abreast
of Truth.—*Lowell.*

QUESTIONS.—*What punctuation-marks are used in the foregoing sentences ? Why are they used ? What is a substance ? Hydrogen ? What are "night's candles" ? What is tin ? Solder ? Do you agree with Herodotus (11) ? Why is the ocean blue ? Who was Gyges ? What are ground-glass globes used for ? What is the meaning of "edulcorated" ? "Verge" ? "Transparency" ? "Dominion" ? Where is Paris ? Who was Aristippus ? What do you know of the authors of the foregoing sentences ?*

FOR REVIEW.

215. Review the remarks and exercises that are numbered, and illustrate each remark with an original sentence.

PART III.

POSITION OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

Remarks.—In the English language it is generally necessary to know the place of a word in a sentence in order to tell what idea the speaker or writer intends it to express. Thus, in “The well is deep,” “The waters well up,” “He is well,” or “He studies well,” the place of the word *well* indicates its relation to the other words of the sentence in which it is used (78, note). So also, if we wish to use the word *well*, we must know where to place it in a sentence to express the intended meaning.

The relation of words that are inflected is indicated by their *form* as well as by their *position*. (See Appendix, p. 260, note 1.)

“We have *à priori* reasons for believing that in every sentence there is some one order of words more effective than any other; and this order is the one which presents the elements of the proposition in the succession in which they may be most readily put together.”—*Spencer*.

The usual place in which words are found in a sentence is their *natural position*. When words are used out of their natural position, they are said to be *transposed*. As we naturally expect to hear or see words in a certain order, we are more likely to notice them when they are out of their usual place, and consequently the transposition of a word renders it more emphatic; and *one of the chief reasons why words are transposed is to make them emphatic*.

QUESTIONS.—*How is the relation of words indicated? What is meant by the natural position of words? When is a word said to be transposed? Why are words transposed? What is the position of the words in Exercise 98 with respect to the words with which they are construed? Which is placed first, the subject or the predicate? Are any of the words transposed?*

NOUNS, PRONOUNS, AND VERBS.

216. In declarative sentences, the **subject** is generally placed before the verb.

217. In interrogative sentences, the **subject** follows the

verb or the first part of the verb, unless an interrogative word is the subject or a modifier of the subject.

EXAMPLES.—“Who was *Blennerhasset* ?” “Where were *you* ?” “What has *he* done ?” “Who came with you ?” “Which book was taken ?”

From these examples it is seen that *interrogative pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs* are placed at the beginning of sentences.

218. In imperative sentences, the **subject** follows the verb.

EXAMPLES.—“Go (*thou*) in peace.” “Hallowed be Thy *name*.”

(a) When the **subject** of a verb in an abridged clause is used with it as the subject of a verb in a sentence, the verb of the clause sometimes follows the verb of the sentence, and the subject precedes it ; as, “*It* was found to be correct.” “Twenty thousand men were said to have been engaged.” “The *Cretans* were believed to be liars.” (See foot-note, p. vi.)

(b) The subject is *transposed*—

1. When a supposition is expressed without using a conjunction ; as, “Were *he* in your place, he would go.”

2. When a wish is expressed by the use of the auxiliary *may* ; as, “May *you* prosper.”

3. When the adverb *there* is used to change the relative position of the subject and the verb ; as, “*There* was no one here.” (177.)

4. Sometimes, when the verb is preceded by *here, there, thence, thus, yet, herein, therein, wherein*, etc. ; as, “Thus spake *he*.” “*Therein* have ye done wrong.”

5. Sometimes, to add strength or beauty to a sentence ; as, “Great is *Diana*.” “From peak to peak leaps the live *thunder*.”

219. A **possessive noun or pronoun** is placed before the word that it modifies.

EXAMPLE.—“The groves were *God’s* first temples.”—*Bryant*.

220. An **appositive noun or pronoun** generally follows the word that it modifies.

EXAMPLES.—“Ye *hills*.”—*Thomson*. “Spring, the sweet *spring*.”

(a) The appositive is sometimes *transposed*; as, "A prompt, decisive *man*, no breath our *father* wasted."—*Whittier*. "*City*, *cannon*, *stores*, every *thing* was lost."

221. The complement of a verb or a verbal generally follows it.

EXAMPLES.—"God is *goodness*." "He tried to become a *scholar*."
"Rome was *mighty*." "Brutus killed *Cæsar*."

(a) The complement is sometimes *transposed*—

1. In interrogative sentences; as, "*What* is he?"
2. In clauses; as, "I know *what* he is."
3. In exclamatory sentences; as, "What *fools* they are!"
4. In poetry and rhetorical expressions; as, "An exquisite *invention* this (is)."—*Leigh Hunt*.

222. A predicate noun or pronoun (or *adjective*) generally follows the word that it modifies.

EXAMPLES.—"God is *goodness*." "Why call ye me *good*?"

223. Direct and indirect objects generally follow the words that they modify.

EXAMPLES.—"Show me the *man*." "They fought like brave *men*."

(a) The direct object sometimes precedes the verb—

1. When it is emphatic; as, "*Me* he *restored* to mine office, and *him* he *hanged*."—*Gen. xli, 13*.
2. In poetry; as, "His daring foe securely *him* defied."—*Milton*.
3. In clauses; as, "We can easily describe *what* we thoroughly *understand*." "The dust *that* we *tread* shall change."

224. Adverbial objects of verbs and verbals generally follow them.

EXAMPLE.—"The Irish guns continued to roar all *night*."—*Macaulay*.

225. Adverbial objects of adjectives and adverbs generally precede them.

EXAMPLES.—"Three *miles* long." "An *hour* sooner."

226. The object of a preposition generally follows it.

EXAMPLE.—"The saddest *of* the *year*."

(a) The object of a preposition sometimes precedes it—

1. In clauses ; as, "*What* he came *for*, I know not." "The books *that* he sent *for*, are here."
2. In interrogative sentences ; as, "*What* have you come *for*?"
3. In poetry ; as, "The rattling *crag* *among*."

227. When three objects of different kinds modify the same verb, they are generally arranged as follows : first, **indirect object** ; second, **direct object** ; third, **adverbial object**.

EXAMPLE.—"He *brought me* the book the next morning."

But we may also say, "The next *morning*, he brought me the book."

228. *Polite usage* requires that the person addressed should generally be mentioned first, and the speaker last.

EXAMPLE.—"You, Thomas, and I are invited" ; not, "I, you, and Thomas," or "Thomas, you, and I," or "You, I, and Thomas."

EXERCISES.

229. *Arrange the following words in sentences, and analyze the sentences :*¹

1. Do love, children, you ?
2. Defeated the, in, and the, in, Austrians, Napoleon, Spaniards, 1808, 1809.
3. And signifies, the Latin, is derived, agreement, from, *concordia*, concord.
4. Death's, gray hairs, blossoms, are.
5. Met, brave men, the Pilgrims, every hardship, like.

1. The process of combining words in sentences is called *synthesis*.

230. *Change the transposed words to their natural position, and explain the effect of the change :*

1. Him well I knew.
2. Instantly follows the rapid thunder !
3. Down swept all his power.
4. Six times his gossamery thread the wary spider threw.
5. What a world of merriment their melody foretells !

1. When a word is transposed, the words modifying it accompany it.

231. *Transpose the italicized words, punctuate the sentences, and explain the effect of the transposition :*

1. They set *him* at defiance
2. *He* has gone
3. There is none to dispute my *right*
4. How sad is the *news*
5. *They* are brave boys

ADJECTIVES.

232. An adjective is generally placed before the noun that it modifies.

EXAMPLE.—“*Some pious drops the closing eye requires.*”—Gray.

For the position of *predicate adjectives*, see 221 and 222.

233. Adjectives that express *number* generally precede adjectives that express *quality*, and follow other adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—“*One little girl.*” “*Those two old men.*”

(a) If two or more adjectives are of *unequal rank*, the one expressing the most obvious or most permanent quality modifies the noun most closely and is placed nearest to it ; as, “*Large red apples.*” “*The unclouded arching sky.*”

(b) If two adjectives are of *equal rank*, the longer word is placed last ; and they are joined by *and* or separated by a comma ; as, “*A sober, industrious man.*” “*A sober and industrious man.*”

(c) Adjectives that express quality are sometimes transposed—

1. When they themselves are modified ; as, “*One perfectly upright.*” “*A man sound in all his members.*” “*A well twenty-five feet deep.*”

2. When several adjectives modify the same noun ; as, “*A man, wise, learned, and good.*”

3. To add strength or beauty to a sentence ; as, “*Great is Diana.*” (218, 5 ; 221, 4.)

(d) *Else* follows the noun or the pronoun that it modifies ; as, “*Somebody else.*” “*Who else ?*”

(e) *Whatever, whatsoever*, etc., sometimes follow the words that they modify ; as, “*There is no doubt whatever.*”—Dickens.

EXERCISES.

234. Arrange the following words in sentences, and analyze the sentences :

1. I have, red, ten, large, apples. 2. How beautiful is, yellow, the, waving, grain ! 3. There is, way, more natural, better, a, and. 4. Dog, boy's, the, black, little, cross, is. 5. Makes, things, sloth, all, difficult.

242. Adverbs of emphasis are generally placed before the words, phrases, or clauses that they modify.

EXAMPLES.—"Only a boy." "Even from out thy slime." "Even as a miser counts his gold," etc.

(a) Great care must be taken to place adverbs of emphasis properly, and especially the adverb *only*.

"The word requiring most attention is *only*. According to the position of *only*, the very same words may be made to express several very different meanings. (1.) 'He *only* lived for their sakes.' Here *only* must be held as qualifying 'lived for their sakes,' the emphasis being on *lived*, the word immediately adjoining. The meaning, then, is, 'he *lived*,' but did not *work*, did not *die*, did not do any other thing for their sakes. (2.) 'He lived *only* for their sakes.' *Only* now qualifies 'for their sakes,' and the sentence means he lived for their sakes, and not for any other reason. (3.) 'He lived for their sakes *only*.' The force of the word when placed at the end is peculiar. It has then a diminutive or disparaging signification. 'He lived for their sakes,' and not for any more worthy reason. 'He gave sixpence *only*,' is an insinuation that more was expected."—*Bain*.

"I am confident that it [*only*] is not correctly placed half the time, either in conversation or in writing."—*Ayres*.

EXERCISES.

243. Arrange the following words in sentences, and analyse the sentences :

1. Adverbs, should be used, too, not, frequently. 2. Not, will go, why, in, you? 3. Calm, weep, is, who, there, those, a, for. 4. We are, through what, we give, rich, only. 5. Of learning, with blow, from conflict, foes, we, fall, will go, turning, sturdy, the, the, each, onward, backward, never.¹

1. A four-line stanza.

244. Arrange the words in their natural order :

1. Heavily falls the rain. 2. Fast stealeth he on. 3. Now give it me. 4. He slowly went away. 5. Now came still evening on.—*Milton*.

245. Omit "there" :

1. There was no one here. 2. There were twenty men killed. 3. God said, Let there be light : and there was light.

246. Arrange properly :

1. She only paid five cents. 2. Columbus discovered America when? 3. Some virtues are only seen in adversity. 4. I have thought of marrying often. 5. I desire to sometimes see her.

VERBALS.

247. A verbal that refers to a noun or a pronoun generally follows it.

EXAMPLE.—“*I want to be an angel.*”

248. A verbal used as a noun takes the place of the noun.

EXAMPLE.—“*He desired to go.*”

249. A verbal used as an adjective or an adverb generally follows the word that it modifies.

EXAMPLES.—“*Wealth acquired honestly,*” etc. “*I came to see you.*”

PREPOSITIONS.

250. A preposition is generally placed before its object.

251. Prepositions generally precede *whom*, *which*, etc., but may follow them. The pronoun *that*, when used as a subordinate conjunctive (199), always precedes the preposition of which it is the object; as, “*The man with whom you came.*” “*The city from which.*” “*The lady that you spoke to.*” “*The man whom you came with.*”

The preposition and its object should be so placed as to show clearly what word is modified by the phrase introduced by the preposition. (259.)

CONJUNCTIONS.

252. A co-ordinate conjunction is placed between the parts of a sentence joined by it.

253. A subordinate conjunctive (198) is placed at the beginning of the clause that it introduces.

EXAMPLE.—“*If thy right eye offend thee, pluck it out.*” (260.)

254. When *both—and*, *either—or*, *neither—nor*, and *not only—but also* are used, the part of the sentence that follows the first term of the correlatives should be similar to the part following the second.

Thus, “*I will either meet you at Lancaster or West Chester,*” or “*I will meet you either at Lancaster or West Chester,*” should be “*either at Lancas-*

ter or at West Chester," "at either Lancaster or West Chester," or "either meet you at Lancaster or meet you at West Chester." (556.)

EXERCISE.

255. Are the **verbals** in 180, 182, and 184 in their natural position? The **prepositions** in 191? The **conjunctions** in 205?

PHRASES AND CLAUSES.

256. A **phrase** or a **clause** used as a noun takes the place of the noun.

EXAMPLES.—"Toward Boston is east." "That you have wronged me doth appear in this." "I desire him to study."

257. A **phrase** or a **clause** used as an adjective generally follows the word that it modifies.

EXAMPLES.—"The city of Boston." "Pleasure that comes unlooked for is thrice welcome."—Rogers.

258. A **phrase** or a **clause** used as an adverb takes the place of the adverb.

EXAMPLES.—"I shall go to Boston in the morning." (I shall go there then.) "In the morning I shall go to Boston." (Then I shall go there.) So also, "I shall go when he comes." (I shall go then.) "When he comes, I shall go." (Then I shall go.)

259. **Phrases** and **clauses** should be so placed in a sentence as to show clearly what words they modify.

260. **Transposed phrases** and **clauses** are generally set off by commas; as, "With all his reflective habits, he never made up his mind on a subject." "If we except the translators of the Bible, Shakespeare wrote the best English that has yet been written."—R. G. White.

If the inversion is easy and natural, no comma is required; as, "To this I reply," etc.

261. **Interposed words, phrases, and clauses** are generally set off by commas; as, "This, however, was wrong." "There was, in truth, no way of saving him." "Let us remember, if we can, that he was sorely tried."

EXERCISES.

262. Arrange the following words in their natural order :

1. Toward the sky's image hangs the imaged bridge.—*Lowell*.
2. Let the water and the blood
 From thy riven side which flowed,
 Be of sin the double cure.
3. A dainty plant is the ivy green.—*Dickens*. 4. And all the
air a solemn stillness holds.—*Gray*.
5. Not in vain, confessor old,
 Unto us the tale is told
 Of thy day of trial.—*Whittier*.

(a) **Analyze the following sentences, and arrange them in the form of poetry :**

COUPLETS.

1. The tread of marching feet sounded through Frederick Street all day long.—*Whittier*.
2. The gusty north-wind bore the loosening drift before its breath all day.—*Whittier*.

FOUR-LINE STANZAS.

3. I'll pursue thy goodness through every period of my life, and renew the glorious theme in distant worlds, after death.—*Addison*.
4. Earth, the bounteous mother of man, still feeds him with corn and wine ; he who would aid a brother best, shares these divine gifts with him.—*Sterling*.
5. I'm a careless potato, and care not a pin how I came into existence ; 't is exactly the same to me if they planted me drill-wise or dibbled me in.—*Moore*.

(b) **Arrange the following words properly :**

1. She bought a new pair of fine ladies' shoes. 2. I, you, and Mary have permission to read his two last letters. 3. Rats and gentlemen caught and waited on and all other jobs performed by Solomon Grundy. 4. The Moor, seizing a bolster, full of rage and jealousy, smothers her. 5. A keen eye and a graphic pen see and set down for us the characteristic details.

FOR REVIEW.

263. Review the remarks and exercises that are numbered.

PART IV.

CLASSES AND PROPERTIES OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

264. A Part of Speech is a class of words that is made according to their use in sentences.

265. The ten parts of speech are—

Nouns, Pronouns, Verbs, Adjectives, Adverbs, Verbals, Prepositions, Conjunctions, Responsives, and Interjections.

INFLECTION.

Inductive Lesson.—1. Lion, lioness; lion, lions; I, you, he; I, me. 2. I shall go to-morrow. 3. We went yesterday. 4. My brother may go. 5. I am old, but he is older.

QUESTIONS.—*Does the word "lion" represent a male? How does it change its form to represent a female? Does it change its form to represent more than one? Does the pronoun "I" represent the speaker? Which does "you" represent, the speaker, or the person spoken to? What time does the verb "shall go" refer to? "Went"? What is the difference between "old" and "older"?*

Many of the foregoing words vary in their form, to indicate a variation in their use; and they are said to have certain *properties*, and to be *inflected*.

266. A Property of a part of speech is a variation in its use and form.

267. Inflection is a variation in the form of a part of speech, to indicate a variation in its use.

268. Parts of speech may be *inflected*—

1. By adding one or more letters.

EXAMPLES.—*Book, books; slow, slower, slowest; die, dying, died.*

2. By changing the vowel-sound.

EXAMPLES.—*Man, men ; come, came ; begin, began, begun.*

3. By using an additional word.

EXAMPLES.—*Go, shall go ; slowly, more slowly, most slowly.*

The third mode of inflection gives rise to properties that otherwise would not be found in English ; e. g., passive voice, potential mood, the future tenses, the perfect tenses, the comparison of certain adjectives and adverbs, etc.

(a) The inflection of nouns and pronouns is called **declension**. The inflection of verbs is called **conjugation**. The inflection of adjectives and adverbs is called **comparison**.

(b) *Verbals* are inflected like verbs. *Prepositions, conjunctions, responses, and interjections* are not inflected.

See Appendix, p. 260, note 2.

RULES FOR SPELLING.

269. The following **Rules for Spelling** will be of service in inflecting words :

Rule 1. Final **e** is dropped when a suffix beginning with a vowel is added.

EXAMPLES.—*Come, coming ; love, lover ; wise, wiser.*

EXCEPTIONS.—Final **e** is retained (1) after *c* and *g* when the suffix begins with *a* or *o* ; as, *changeable, peaceable* ; (2) after *o*, as, *shoeing* ; and (3) when it is needed to preserve the identity of the word ; as, *dyeing, singeing*.

Rule 2. Final **e** is retained when a suffix beginning with a consonant is added.

EXAMPLES.—*Wise, wisely ; pale, paleness.*

EXCEPTIONS.—A few words drop **e** : as, *true, truly ; awe, awful ; wise, wisdom*, etc.

Rule 3. Final **y** preceded by a consonant is changed to **i** when a suffix not beginning with *i* is added.

EXAMPLES.—*Try, tried ; merry, merrily ; happy, happier ; dry, driest, drying.*

EXCEPTIONS.—*Beauteous, piteous, plenteous, shyness, slyly, spryer*, etc.

Rule 4. Final *y* preceded by a vowel is not changed when a suffix is added.

EXAMPLES.—*Joy, joyful; day, daylight.*

EXCEPTIONS.—A few words take *i*: *laid, lain, said, daily, paid, etc.*

Rule 5. The final consonant of a monosyllable or a word accented on the last syllable, is doubled when a suffix beginning with a vowel is added, if the consonant is preceded by a single vowel.

EXAMPLES.—*Hot, hotter; fit, fitting; begin, beginning; prefer, preferred.*

EXCEPTIONS.—The letters *x, k, and v* are not doubled. *S* in *gas* is not doubled; as, *gas, gases.*

Rule 6. The final consonant is not doubled when a suffix beginning with a vowel is added, if the consonant is not preceded by a single vowel, or if the accent is not on the last syllable.

EXAMPLES.—*Sail, sailing; benefit, benefiting.*

EXCEPTIONS.—Some authors write *traveller, cancelled, worshipper, etc.*

NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

NOUNS.

270. A Noun is a word used as a name.

Or, a *noun* is a word used to represent an object by naming it.

(a) A **word** from another part of speech, a letter, a character, or a sign, is sometimes used as a noun; as, “*Truly* is an adverb.” “*A* is a vowel.” “Dot your *i*’s.” “*○* is called a whole-note.” “+ is the sign of addition.”

(b) **Adjectives** are frequently used as nouns; as, “The *pure* in heart.” “The *good* die young.”

See 180, 195, and 207.

CLASSES OF NOUNS.

Inductive Lesson.—1. I will send James to help you. 2. I will send a boy to help you. 3. Millersville, village, city, Boston.

QUESTIONS.—When I say, "I will send James," what word do I use to show which boy is meant? Does the name "James" distinguish James from other boys? When I say, "I will send a boy," does the name "boy" distinguish one boy from the others? Is the name "boy" common to all boys? Can the name "village" be applied to all villages? Can the name "Millersville" be applied to all villages? Why not? What is the difference between "city" and "Boston"?

The name *Boston* is given to a city to distinguish it from other cities, and it is called a *proper noun*. The name *city* is a name that is common to all cities, and it is called a *common noun*.

271. Nouns are divided into two chief classes: *Proper Nouns* and *Common Nouns*.

272. A **Proper Noun** is a name given to an object to distinguish it from other objects of the same class.

273. Proper nouns, and adjectives derived from proper nouns, should begin with *capital letters*.

274. A **Common Noun** is a name that is common to all objects of the same kind or class.

(a) When a proper noun may be applied to each individual of a class of persons that resemble one another in certain qualities, it becomes a **common noun**; as, "Some mute, inglorious *Milton* here may rest." "The *Germans* are at work." (Several persons from Germany.)

(b) When a common noun is used to distinguish an object from others of the same class, it becomes a **proper noun**; as, "A drive in the *Park*."

(c) A name that is given to a group of objects to distinguish it from other groups of the same class, is a **proper noun**; as, "The *Germans* are industrious." (The people of Germany.) "The *Canaries*."

(d) A **Collective Noun** is the name of a collection considered as one object ; as, *pair, dozen, group, regiment, family, tribe, mob, jury, people, audience, committee*, etc. (See foot-note, p. vi.)

(e) An **Abstract Noun** is the name of a quality or an action, which is considered without reference to the object to which it belongs ; as, *breadth, blackness, brightness, color, distance, weight, wealth, honesty, rapidity, death*, etc.

Collective nouns and abstract nouns are common nouns.

EXERCISES.

275. Write ten common nouns, and five proper nouns belonging to the class of objects named by each common noun, thus :

City, Boston, Paris, Berlin, Rome, Peking.

(a) Point out the collective and abstract nouns in the following :

1. The discretion of a man deferreth his anger.—*Prov. xix, 11.*
2. O the blasting of the fever !—*Longfellow.*
3. Six families lost their lives.
4. The strength of the army was not known.

5. Be a woman ! On to duty !

Raise the world from all that's low ;

Place high in the social heaven

Virtue's fair and radiant bow.—*Edward Brooks.*

(b) Form abstract nouns from the following words :

Climb, good, high, long, run, study, true, veracious, virtuous, wide.

PRONOUNS.

276. A **Pronoun** is a word used instead of a noun.

Or, a *pronoun* is a word used to represent an object without naming it.

(a) A **pronoun** may also be used instead of another pronoun, a phrase, or a clause ; as, "*He who studies, will improve.*" "*Toward the earth's center is down, but it is not always so regarded.*" "*Do you know that Gen. Grant is dead ?*" "*Yes ; I heard it yesterday.*"

Pronouns should be so used that their meaning will be plain. Avoid obscurity and ambiguity.

277. The word, the phrase, or the clause, for which a pronoun is used, is called its **antecedent**.

(a) The *antecedent* of a pronoun is sometimes omitted; as, "Who steals my purse steals trash."—*Shak.* (That is, *He* who.)

(b) The *pronoun* is sometimes omitted; as, "Truth is the highest thing a man may keep."—*Chaucer.* (Supply *that*.)

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS.

Inductive Lesson.—1. I know who came. 2. Do you know the man who came? 3. What did he say? 4. I saw the man that came. 5. I saw the — that came. 6. This is mine. 7. This book is mine. 8. Another came. 9. Another speaker rose.

QUESTIONS.—Which pronoun in the first sentence shows by its form that the speaker is meant? In the second sentence, which pronoun shows by its form that the person spoken to is meant? Does "he" represent the speaker, the person spoken to, or the person spoken of?

What kind of sentence is the third? Which pronoun is used to ask a question?

In the first sentence, which pronoun introduces a clause and joins it to the word that the clause modifies? In the second? In the fourth? What is the antecedent of "that," in the fourth sentence? Does "that" represent a male, or a female? The person speaking, the person spoken to, or the person spoken of? One, or more than one? How can you tell? In the fifth sentence, does "that" represent a male, or a female? One, or more than one? Why can you not tell? Is not "that" closely related to an antecedent? Why is it? In the third sentence, does "he" represent a male, or a female? One, or more than one? Is "he" closely related to an antecedent? Why not? Is "who," in the first sentence? Why not?

What is the subject of "is," in the sixth sentence? Of "came," in the eighth? What adjective modifies "book"? "Speaker"?

The pronoun *I* shows by its form that the speaker is meant; the pronoun *you* shows that the person spoken to is meant; and the pronoun *he* shows that the person spoken of is meant. *I*, *you*, and *he* are called **personal pronouns**.

The pronoun *what* is used to ask a question. It is called an **interrogative pronoun**.

The pronouns *who* and *that* are used to introduce clauses, and join them to the words that the clauses modify. They are called **conjunctive pronouns**.

The conjunctive pronoun *that* is closely related to an antecedent. It is called a *relative conjunctive pronoun*, or a *relative pronoun*.

The words *this* and *another* may be used as pronouns and as adjectives. In the sixth and eighth sentences they are used as pronouns, and are called *adjective pronouns*.

278. Pronouns are divided into four classes : *Personal Pronouns*, *Interrogative Pronouns*, *Conjunctive Pronouns* (including *Relative*), and *Adjective Pronouns*.

Personal Pronouns.

279. A **Personal Pronoun** is a pronoun that shows by its form whether the speaker is meant, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of.

280. The personal pronouns are *I*, *thou* or *you*, *he*, *she*, and *it*, with their declined forms and their compounds.

281. Words formed by adding *self* or *selves* to *my*, *our*, *thy*, *your*, *him*, *her*, *it*, and *them*, are called **compound personal pronouns**.

EXAMPLES.—*Myself*, *yourself*, *yourselves*, *themselves*.

(a) *Compound personal pronouns* are used—

1. For emphasis ; as, "For he *himself* hath said it."
2. In a reflexive sense ; as, "He struck *himself*."

(b) The pronoun *it* is sometimes used—

1. Indefinitely ; as, "*It* rains." "*It* is I." (*The person*.)
"What was *it* that you saw ?" (*The thing*.)
2. As a preparatory word. When thus used, it is followed by an explanatory word, phrase, or clause ; as, "*It* is wrong to steal."
"*It* is believed by all nations *that the soul is immortal*."

(c) The pronoun *thou* is used instead of *you*—

1. In the Bible ; as, "*Thou* shalt not kill."
2. In addresses to the Deity ; as, "Be *Thou* our guide."
3. Frequently in poetry ; as, "I'll not leave *thee*, *thou* lone one."—*Moore*.

4. Among Friends (Quakers), as the "plain language;" as, "Is this *thy* book?"

(d) *Thou, thy, thine, thee, thyself*, and *ye* are said to be in the *old* or *solemn* style. They should not be used with pronouns or verbs in the common style. (439 b.)

Interrogative Pronouns.

282. An Interrogative Pronoun is a pronoun used to ask a question.

Interrogative pronouns do not have antecedents expressed.

283. The interrogative pronouns are *who* (*whose, whom*), *which*, and *what*.

(a) *Who* is used to ask about persons; as, "*Who* came with John?" "*Who* was Aaron Burr?"

(b) *Which* and *what* are used to ask about persons or things; as, "*Which* is Mary?" "*Which* is my hat?" "*What* art thou?"—*Milton*. "*What* does little birdie say?"—*Tennyson*.

Which generally inquires for a particular one of two or more; *what* generally inquires for a description.

The pronoun *what* is sometimes used in an exclamatory sense, and it may then be called an *exclamatory pronoun*; as, "*What* must be their depravity!"—*Sheridan*.

Conjunctive Pronouns.

284. A Conjunctive Pronoun is a pronoun used to introduce a clause and join it to the word that the clause modifies.

285. A Relative Pronoun is a conjunctive pronoun that is closely related to an antecedent.

Do not use a relative pronoun without a proper antecedent.

286. The conjunctive pronouns are *who, which, that, as, what*, and possibly *but*, with their declined forms and their compounds.

287. Words formed by adding *ever* or *soever* to *who*, *which*, and *what*, are called **compound conjunctive pronouns**.

EXAMPLES.—*Whoever, whosoever, whichever, whatever.* (Also, *whoso*.)

288. *Who* (*whose, whom*) and *which* are used as ordinary conjunctive pronouns and as relatives; *what* and the compound pronouns are used only as pure conjunctives; *that, as, and but* are used only as relatives.

Care must be taken to distinguish between the ordinary conjunctive pronoun and the relative pronoun. They are alike in that they both join clauses to the words that the clauses modify. They differ in that the ordinary conjunctive pronoun does not have an antecedent expressed, while the relative pronoun is closely related to an antecedent. Examine the following sentences :

ORDINARY CONJUNCTIVE.	RELATIVE CONJUNCTIVE.
(Called <i>Conjunctive Pronouns</i> .)	(Called <i>Relative Pronouns</i> .)
I know <i>who</i> came.	I know the man <i>who</i> came.
I remember <i>which</i> the hard problems are.	I remember the hard problems <i>which</i> we solved.
Take <i>what</i> is needed.	Take that <i>which</i> is needed.
I know <i>what</i> is needed for the completion of the work.	Spirit <i>that</i> breathest through my lattice.— <i>Bryant</i> .
We shall admit <i>whoever</i> comes.	Such <i>as</i> I have, give I thee.

(a) *Who* is used in referring to persons, and to other objects regarded as persons; as, "Can you tell *who* wrote 'Beautiful Snow'?" "*They* never fail *who* die in a great cause."—*Byron*. "A fox *who* had been caught in a trap was very glad to save his life by the loss of his tail."—*Fable*.

(b) The conjunctive *which* is used in referring to persons or things; as, "Do you know *which* of those gentlemen assisted him?" "Ascertain *which* of these books he wants." The relative *which* is used in referring to things, and animals inferior to man; as, "The flowers *which* bloom." "The horse *which* ran."

(c) The conjunctive *what* is used in referring to things (rarely to persons); as, "*What* in me is dark illumine."—*Milton*. "How I wonder *what* will please her!"—*Mary Lamb*.

(d) The relative *that* is used in referring to both persons and other objects; as, "Wealth is not *his that* has it, but *his that* enjoys it."—*Franklin*. "Which is the *wind that* brings the flowers?"—*Stedman*.

(e) *That* is preferred to *who* or *which*—

1. When both persons and other objects are referred to ; as, “The horse and his rider, *that* plunged into the river, were swept away by the current.”

2. Generally after *all*, *any*, *each*, *every*, *no*, *same*, or *some* ; as, “All *that* I have is thine.”

3. Frequently in limiting, or restrictive, clauses ; as, “The sound of a door *that* is opened.”—*Longfellow*. (Not all doors ; a limiting, or restrictive, clause.) “It was a beauty *that* I saw.”—*Ben Jonson*.

This rule (e, 3) was more closely followed formerly than at present. Many exceptions to it can be found in modern English, and some in older English ; as, “With the events *which* actually influence our course through life.”—*Hawthorne*. “A felicity *which* should continue.”—*Macaulay*. “In the poetical quarter I found that there were poets *who* had no monuments and monuments *which* had no poets.”—*Addison* (Westminster Abbey).

(f) *Who* or *which* is preferred to *that* in non-restrictive clauses ; as, “And I, *who* woke each morrow.”—*Halleck*. (Explanatory clause, but not restrictive.) “Read thy doom in the flowers, *which* fade and die.”

(g) Non-restrictive clauses should be set off by *commas*.

RESTRICTIVE CLAUSES.	NON-RESTRICTIVE CLAUSES.
I met the watchman who showed me the way.	I met the watchman, who showed me the way.
The man of whom you spoke, is here.	John Smith, of whom you spoke, is here.
The geologists to whom this is of interest, etc.	The geologists, to whom this is of interest, etc.
And fools that came to scoff, remained to pray.	And fools, who came to scoff, remained to pray.

(h) *As* is a relative pronoun after *such*, *same*, or *many*, and generally after *as much* ; as, “I love *such as* love me.” (*Such as = those that.*) “He has the same habits *as* his father.” “As many *as* came, were baptized.” (*As many as = all that.*)

(i) *But* may be called a relative pronoun when it is equivalent to the relative *that* and the adverb *not* ; as—

“There is no fireside, howsoever defended,
But has one vacant chair.”—*Longfellow*.

“It seems much simpler to allow that a pronoun is understood.”—*Mason*.

Adjective Pronouns.

289. An Adjective Pronoun is a word that is used as a pronoun, and may be used as an adjective.

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

All await the hour.
Another came.
Each strove for the mastery.
Many have fallen.
 Is *this* your book?

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

All the world's a stage.
Another morning came.
 Improve *each* shining hour.
Many brave boys fell.
 Is *this* book yours?

290. Among the common adjective pronouns are *each*, *either*, *neither*, *this* (*these*), *that* (*those*), *former*, *latter*, *all*, *another*, *any*, *both*, *few*, *many*, *more*, *most*, *much*, *none*, *one* (*ones*), *other* (*others*), *some*, *such*, and *several*.

(a) *Each* refers to any number of objects taken singly; as, "*Each* of the pupils had recited."

(b) *Either* and *neither* (*not either*) refer to one of two only; as, "*Either* will do." (One of two.) "*Neither* will suit me."

(c) *That* and *those* refer to distant objects, the first mentioned, or the absent; *this* and *these* refer to objects near by, the last mentioned, or the present; as—

"Farewell, my friends! farewell, my foes!
 My peace with *these*, my love with *those*."—Burns.

(*These* = my foes; *those* = my friends.)

(d) When *one* and *other* refer to two objects previously mentioned, *one* refers to the first object, and *other* to the second; as, "Virtue and vice are before you; the *one* leads to happiness, the *other* to misery."

(e) *Each other* should refer to two only; *one another* to more than two; as, "David and Jonathan loved *each other*." "Those children love *one another*."

EXERCISES.

291. Classify the nouns and pronouns in 193, 203, and 205.

(a) **Correct the following sentences, recasting them when necessary:**

1. The air that is composed of O and N surrounds the earth.
2. If the lad should leave his father, he would die.
3. The boys

they were late. 4. Love thy neighbor as yourself. 5. She said that when she saw her sister she cried. 6. Both city and country life have their attractions ; this brings society, and that solitude. 7. Either of the five will suit me. 8. Dryden's page is a natural field, Pope's is a velvet lawn ; the one follows rules, the other nature. 9. Rooms for gentlemen that are heated with steam. 10. Solomon, the son of David, who built the temple at Jerusalem, was a wise and powerful king.

PROPERTIES OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

292. The Properties of nouns and pronouns are *gender*, *person*, *number*, and *case*.

The gender, person, and number of many pronouns can be told only by referring to their antecedents. (277.)

Gender.

Inductive Lesson.—1. Jason met his cousin on the lawn. 2. Laura was with her parents. 3. Lion, lioness, trees, king, queen, boys, girls, hero, heroine.

QUESTIONS.—Does the word "Jason" represent a male, or a female? "His"? "Cousin"? "Lawn"? "Parents"? "Lioness"? "Tree"? "King"? "Girl"? Which of the foregoing words represent males? Which represent females? Which may be used to represent either a male or a female? Which represents neither a male nor a female? Which words change their form to represent females? .

The foregoing nouns and pronouns distinguish objects in regard to sex. They are, therefore, said to have *gender*.

Jason, *his*, *lion*, *king*, *boys*, and *hero* are used to represent males ; and they are said to be in the *masculine gender*. *Laura*, *her*, *lioness*, *queen*, *girls*, and *heroine* are used to represent females ; and they are said to be in the *feminine gender*. *Cousin* and *parents* may be used without a change in form to represent either males or females ; and they are said to be in the *common gender*. *Lawn* and *trees* are used to represent neither males nor females ; and they are said to be in the *neuter gender*.

293. Gender is a variation in the use and form of a noun or a pronoun to distinguish objects in regard to sex.

Or, gender is that *property* of a noun or a pronoun which distinguishes objects in regard to sex. And the same change may be made in the definition of each property. (266.)

Gender is applied to all nouns and pronouns, although some undergo no variation in their use to distinguish objects in regard to sex. For example: *Bachelor* is always used to represent a male; *daughter*, a female; *stone*, an object without sex. Strictly speaking, words that undergo no variation in use to distinguish objects in regard to sex *do not have grammatical gender*. Many nouns and pronouns vary in both use and form; as, *tiger*, *tigress*, *he*, *she*. Many pronouns vary in use only; as, "The man *who* came" (mas.). "The woman *who* came" (fem.).

Do not confound *sex* and *gender*. Sex belongs to some objects; gender belongs to words used to represent objects.

294. There are four genders: the *masculine*, the *feminine*, the *common*, and the *neuter*.

295. A noun or a pronoun used to represent a male is in the *masculine gender*.

296. A noun or a pronoun used to represent a female is in the *feminine gender*.

297. A noun or a pronoun that may be used without changing its form to represent either a male or a female, is in the *common gender*.

298. A noun or a pronoun used to represent neither a male nor a female, is in the *neuter gender*.

(a) Frequently, nouns and pronouns in the masculine gender are used to represent a class consisting of both males and females; as, "*Man* is mortal." (Every man and every woman.) "*Lions and tigers* are found in Africa." Sometimes, nouns and pronouns in the feminine gender are used for the same purpose; as, "*Geese* are graceful swimmers."

Actor, author, poet, etc., are frequently used to represent women, as well as men.

(b) A *collective noun* is in the neuter gender when the collection that it names is regarded as a single thing. When it refers to the individuals composing the collection, its gender is determined by the sex of the individuals; as, "The *army* spread destruction in its march." "The *congregations* are large." (Each congrega-

tion is regarded as a single thing ; neuter gender.) "The *congregation* may bring their hymn-books." (The members of the congregation ; common gender.)

(c) The sex of children and small animals is sometimes disregarded ; and the words representing them are in the *neuter gender* ; as—

"A simple *child* that lightly draws *its* breath."—Wordsworth.

"And is the *swallow* gone ?

Who beheld *it* ?"—William Howitt.

(d) Nouns and pronouns that represent either males or females without changing their form, are in the *common gender*, if the sex is not indicated by some other word ; as, "*I* saw *you*." (Common gender.) "*I*, your brother, saw *you*, Mary." (*I*, mas. ; *you*, fem.) "The *child* was hurt" (com.). "The *child* hurt his hand" (mas.). "The *child* hurt her hand" (fem.). "The *child* hurt its hand" (neut.). "The *descendants* of Pocahontas" (com.). "The male *descendants*" (mas.).

(e) Objects without life are sometimes regarded as *persons*, and are then said to be **personified**. The names of personified objects noted for size, strength, sublimity, or superiority, are in the **masculine gender**. Those noted for grace, beauty, gentleness, or productiveness, are in the **feminine gender** ; as—

"The *moon* looks down on old *Cronest* ;

She mellows the shades on *his* shaggy breast."—Drake.

How Sex is Distinguished.

299. The two sexes are distinguished in three ways :

1. By using *different words*.

EXAMPLES.—*Boy, girl ; bachelor, maid ; hart, roe ; king, queen ; gentleman, lady ; son, daughter.* (298, note.)

2. By using *different endings*.

EXAMPLES.—*Actor, actress ; duke, duchess ; tiger, tigress ; tutor, tutress ; shepherd, shepherdess.*

3. By using *distinguishing words*.

EXAMPLES.—*Man-servant, maid-servant or woman-servant ; he-goat, she-goat ; male descendants, female descendants ; Mr. Lyon, Mrs. Lyon or Miss Lyon.* (9.)

EXERCISES.

300. *Study the following words, so that when one of a pair is given you can recall the other. The first word of each pair is masculine.*

Bridegroom, bride ; beau, belle ; brother, sister ; colt, filly ; drake, duck ; earl, countess ; father, mother ; gander, goose ; gentleman, lady ; he, she ; horse, mare ; husband, wife ; king, queen ; lad, lass ; lord, lady ; male, female ; man, woman ; master, mistress or miss ; Mr., Mrs. ; monk or friar, nun ; nephew, niece ; papa, mamma ; sir, madam ; sloven, slattern ; steer, heifer ; uncle, aunt ; wizard, witch ; youth, maiden or damsel. (P. 194.)

301. *Write the feminine of the following masculine nouns by adding "ess" :*

Author, baron, count, dauphin, deacon, giant, god (269, 5), heir, host, Jew, lion, mayor, patron, peer, poet, priest, prophet, shepherd, tailor, traitor.

302. *Write the feminine of the following masculine nouns by dropping the masculine ending "er" or "or," and adding the feminine "ess" :*

Adventurer, governor, murderer, sorcerer.

303. *Drop the last vowel, and add "ess" :*

Actor, ambassador, benefactor, caterer, conductor, director, editor, founder, hunter, instructor, monitor, negro, prince, proprietor, songster, tiger, traitor.

304. *Drop the last vowel, and add "ix" :*

Administrator, executor, testator, prosecutor.

305. *Study the following groups :*

Abbot, abbess ; czar, czarina ; hero, heroine ; marquis, marchioness ; sultan, sultana ; archduke, archduchess ; gentleman, gentlewoman ; grandfather, grandmother ; landlord, landlady ; schoolmaster, schoolmistress ; step-son, step-daughter ; man-servant, maid-servant or woman-servant ; Mr. Schofield, Mrs. Schofield or Miss Schofield ; Augustus, Augusta ; Charles, Caroline ; Cornelius, Cornelia ; Francis, Frances ; Jesse, Jessie ; Joseph, Josephine ; Louis, Louisa.

306. In what gender are the nouns and pronouns in the following list ?

General Grant, church, milkmaid, I, game, they, corps, hers, baroness, poem, who, mouse, Wednesday, wizard, shepherd, Miss Roth, class, fleet, coal, cotton, lawyer, which, Rome, tobacco, regiment.

Person.

Inductive Lesson.—1. I saw you with him, James. 2. Mary, will you bring me the book ? 3. We, it, London, Carlyle, they, thou.

QUESTIONS.—*In the first sentence, which word represents the speaker ? Which words represent the person spoken to ? Which the person spoken of ? In the second sentence, which does the word "Mary" represent, the speaker, or the person spoken to ? "You" ? "Me" ? Which word represents the thing spoken of ? What does "we" represent ? "It" ? "London" ? "Carlyle" ? "They" ? "Thou" ?*

The foregoing nouns and pronouns show whether the speaker is meant, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of. They are therefore said to have *person*.

I, me, and we are used to represent the speaker ; and they are said to be in the *first person*. *You, James, Mary, and thou* are used to represent the person spoken to ; and they are said to be in the *second person*. *Him, book, it, London, Carlyle, and they* are used to represent the persons or things spoken of ; and they are said to be in the *third person*.

307. The **Person** of a noun or a pronoun is a variation in its use and form to represent the speaker, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of.

308. There are three persons : the *first*, the *second*, and the *third*.

The personal pronoun has a distinct form for each person ; as, *I, you, he*. All other pronouns, and all nouns, vary in use only.

309. A pronoun used to represent the speaker is in the **first person**.

310. A noun or a pronoun used to represent the person spoken to is in the **second person**.

311. A noun or a pronoun used to represent the person or the thing spoken of is in the **third person**.

Nouns are not used in the first person. In the sentence, "I Paul beseech you," the noun *Paul* does not directly represent the speaker; it shows definitely who is meant by the pronoun *I*, and it is in the third person. So, also, the nouns *teacher* and *pupils* are in the third person in "I am the teacher; you are the pupils."

EXERCISE.

312. In what person are the following nouns and pronouns?

1. It, we, Mississippi, darkness, Chaucer. 2. "Miss Smith, may I accompany you to the park?" 3. "Ye crags and peaks! I'm with you once again." 4. "Who is this that darkeneth counsel by words without knowledge?"—*Job xxxviii, 2*.

Number.

Inductive Lesson.—1. Blessings on thee, barefoot boy! 2. The mountains are covered with snow. 3. Man, men, Dr. Brown, ladies.

QUESTIONS.—How many do I mean when I say "*thee*"? "*Boy*"? Does the word "*mountains*" represent more than one object? "*Man*"? "*Men*"? "*Dr. Brown*"? "*Ladies*"? Does "*boy*" change its form to represent more than one? Does "*lady*"?

The foregoing nouns and pronouns vary in use and form to denote one object or more than one. They are, therefore, said to have *number*.

Thee, *boy*, *man*, and *Dr. Brown* each represent but one object; and they are said to be in the *singular number*. *Mountains*, *men*, and *ladies* each represent more objects than one; and they are said to be in the *plural number*.

313. The **Number** of a noun or a pronoun is a variation in its use and form to represent one object or more than one.

Most nouns and pronouns vary in both use and form in showing whether one object is meant, or more than one; as, *boy*, *boys*; *he*, *they*; *this*, *these*. A few nouns and pronouns vary in use only; as, one *sheep*, ten *sheep*; the man *who* came, the men *who* came.

314. There are two numbers: the *singular* and the *plural*.

315. A noun or a pronoun used to represent but one object is in the **singular number**.

316. A noun or a pronoun used to represent more objects than one is in the **plural number**.

(a) A noun or a pronoun having the same form for both numbers is said to be in the *singular* number; unless some other word shows that it represents more than one; as, "I saw a *sheep*" (sing.). "I saw the *sheep*" (sing.). "The *sheep* is in the field" (sing.). "The *sheep* are in the field" (plu.). "*Whom* did you see?" (sing.). "*Whom* did you see?—Mr. Smith" (sing.). "*Whom* did you see?—The ladies" (plu.).

Number of Nouns.

Rules for Expressing Plural Number.

317. Nouns are generally made *plural*—

1. By adding *s* to the singular, when the sound of *s* will unite with the last sound of the noun.

EXAMPLES.—*Hill, hills; valley, valleys; mountain, mountains.*

2. By adding *es* to the singular, when the sound of *s* will not unite with the last sound of the noun.

EXAMPLES.—*Box, boxes; summons, summonses; bridge, bridges.*

318. The following classes of nouns add *es*:

1. Nouns ending with *y* preceded by a consonant.

EXAMPLE.—*Fly, flies.*

Y is changed to *i*. (269, 8.)

2. Most nouns ending with *i*, *o*, or *u*, preceded by a consonant.

EXAMPLE.—*Hero, heroes.*

3. Most nouns ending with *f* or *fe*.

EXAMPLES.—*Elf, elves; knife, knives; wharf, wharves* (also *wharfs*).

F is changed to *v*. (269, 1.)

319. The following nouns add *s*:

1. A few nouns ending with *o* preceded by a consonant.
Among these are—

Canto, duodecimo, halo, junto, lasso, memento, octavo, proviso, piano, solo, tyro.

2. A few nouns ending with *f* or *fe*. Among these are—
Belief, brief, chief, dwarf, fief, fife, grief, gulf, handkerchief, hoof, proof, reef, relief, reproof, roof, safe, scarf, strife, waif.

320. *Letters, figures, and signs* are made plural by adding *'s* to the singular.

EXAMPLES.—*a, a's; 6, 6's; +, +'s.*

EXERCISES.

321. Write the plural of the following nouns (317):

Alley, attorney, bamboo, bay, brush, chimney, church, cuckoo, cuff, cupful, dish, essay, flag-staff, head, horse, kiss, miss, money, monument, muff, oak, portfolio, prize, tax, topaz.

322. Write the plural of the following nouns (318):

Ally, army, city, daisy, fairy, fancy, lady, lily, mystery, soliloquy.¹ Alkali, buffalo, echo, embargo, grotto, mosquito, motto, negro, potato, tornado, volcano. Beef, half, leaf, life, thief, wolf.

1. After *g, u* is a consonant.

323. Write the plural of the nouns in 319.

324. Write the plural of—

Cameo, cargo, clock, couch, elf, eye, fife, five, gnu, judge, if, i, month, rein, rose, staff, success, turkey, veto, zero, x, —, 5, §, 0.

Irregular Plurals.

325. The following nouns are said to form their plurals irregularly:

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
Man,	men.	Ox,	oxen.	Tooth,	teeth.
Woman,	women.	Foot,	feet.	Louse,	lice.
Child,	children.	Goose,	geese.	Mouse,	mice.

Kine (singular, *cow*) is obsolete except in poetry.

(a) Some nouns have two plurals, with different meanings. Among these are—

Brother, *brothers* (of the same family), *brethren* (of the same society).
 Die, *dies* (stamps for coining), *dice* (small cubes for gaming).
 Genius, *geniuses* (men of genius), *genii* (spirits).
 Index, *indexes* (tables of contents), *indices* (algebraic signs).
 Penny, *pennies* (coins), *pence* (amount of value).
 Shot, *shot* (number of balls), *shots* (number of times fired).

(b) Some nouns have the same form for both numbers. Among these are—

Bellows,	Odds,	Grouse,	Species (kind),
Alms,	Deer,	Vermin,	Head (cattle),
Corps,	Sheep,	Heathen,	Sail (vessels),
Means,	Swine,	Series,	United States, etc.

(c) Some nouns frequently have the same form for both numbers. Among these are—

Brace,	Dozen,	Perch,	Herring,
Pair,	Score,	Mackerel,	Fish,
Yoke,	Trout,	Salmon,	Etc.

But the plural of most of these nouns is also regularly formed, especially when they imply number rather than quantity or kind; as, "By *scores* and *dozens*."—*Shakespeare*.

Plurals of Proper and Compound Nouns.

326. Proper nouns are made plural by adding *s* to the singular, or *es* when *s* will not unite in sound.

EXAMPLES.—The four *Napoleons*; the two *Marys*; the *Foxes*.

The plural of India is *Indies*.

(a) **Complex proper nouns** are made plural by adding *s* or *es* to the last word only; as, the *Oliver Cromwells*; the *John Paul Joneses*; the three *General Lees*; the two *Professor Brookses*.

(b) When the title *Mr.* or *Dr.* forms part of a complex proper noun, the noun is made plural by making the title plural; as, Mr. Baker, *Messrs. Baker*; Dr. Atlee, *Drs. Atlee*. When the title is *Mrs.*, or when a numeral precedes the title, the noun is made plural by making the last word plural; as, "The *Mrs. Barlows*."—*Irving*. "The two *Mr. Wellers*."—*Dickens*. "The five *Miss Welshes*." When the title is *Miss*, the noun is made plural by making either the last

word or the title plural ; as, "The *Miss Bertrams*."—*Scott*. "The *Misses Smith*."—*Bryant*.

"The *Miss Bertrams*" is generally to be preferred.

327. Compound nouns are generally made plural by pluralizing the part that names the object.

EXAMPLES.—Mouse-trap, mouse-traps ; wagon-load, wagon-loads ; ox-cart, ox-carts ; brother-in-law, brothers-in-law ; postmaster-general, postmasters-general ; major-general, major-generals ; court-martial, courts-martial ; aide-de-camp, aides-de-camp.

So also, school-house, school-houses ; horseman, horsemen ; gentleman, gentlemen ; penman, penmen ; blackboard, blackboards, etc.

(*German, Mussulman, Ottoman, talisman*, etc., add *s*.)

(a) Compound nouns derived from foreign languages are generally made plural by pluralizing the last part of the word ; as, piano-forte, piano-fortes ; camera-obscura, camera-obscuras ; tête-à-tête, tête-à-têtes.

(b) A few compound nouns have both parts made plural ; as, man-servant, men-servants ; ignis-fatuus, ignes-fatui ; Knight-Templar, Knights-Templars (more frequently *Knights-Templar*).

EXERCISE.

(c) Write the singular and the plural of the following nouns :

Hanger-on, Jack-a-lantern, woman-servant, son-in-law, attorney-general, cart-load, lieutenant-general, commander-in-chief, portemonnaie, ipse dixit, Carolina, Jay Gould, Mr. Harper, Miss Wilson, Mrs. Brooks, (the three) Miss Jones, Dr. McJunkin, (the two) Dr. McJunkin, Professor Sensenig, Captain John Smith.

Nouns Used in One Number.

(d) The following nouns are generally used in the singular number only :

1. The names of materials ; as, gold, air, sugar, wine, flour, milk, ground (meaning earth).

The plural of these nouns is frequently used when different kinds are meant ; as, "The teas of China ;" wines, sugars, etc. So also, "The waters are roaring."

2. The names of arts, sciences, and diseases ; as, *arithmetic, mathematics, logic, ethics, sculpture, painting, fever.*

But when different kinds are meant, we may say, "*Fever*s prevail on the island," etc.

3. Abstract nouns ; as, *pride, height, baseness, beauty.*

When not used as abstract nouns, these words are frequently found in the plural number ; as, *lodgings, heights, beauties, forces.*

4. *News* and *politics.*

News in old English was generally plural. *Politics* is sometimes plural.

(e) Some nouns are used in the plural number only. Among these are—

Aborigines,	Breeches,	Hysterics,	Scissors,
Amends,	Cattle,	Measles,	Snuffers,
Annals,	Clothes,	Nuptials,	Statistics,
Antipodes,	Credentials,	Oats,	Tongs,
Archives,	Dregs,	Obsequies,	Thanks,
Ashes,	Eaves,	Paraphernalia,	Tidings,
Assets,	Embers,	Pincers,	Trousers,
Belles-lettres,	Goods (mdse.),	Premises (bldgs.),	Vespers (services),
Billiards,	Headquarters,	Riches,	Victuals,
Bitters,	Hose,	Remains,	Wages.

Nuptial, thank, and wage are found in old English. *Wage* is occasionally used now in England. *Premise*, a proposition, is used in both numbers. *Riches* (French *richesse*) is really singular, but it is usually regarded as plural. *Tidings* was formerly used also in the singular ; as, "That *tidings* came."—*Shak.*

Collective and Foreign Nouns.

(f) A **collective noun** may be used—

1. In the singular number, to represent the collection as a single thing ; as, "The *family* is large." "The *congregation* is small."

2. In the plural number, to represent several collections ; as, "The *families* are large." "The *congregations* are small."

When thus used, it is made plural in the ordinary way.

3. In the plural number, to refer to the individuals composing the collection ; as, "The *family* are in want." (The members of the family.) "The *congregation* will remain in their seats."

When thus used, it has the same form as in the singular number. (298 b.)

(g) Many **foreign nouns** in common use have two plural forms, an English and a foreign one. The following are among those most frequently used :

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>English Plural.</i>	<i>Foreign Plural.</i>
Bandit,	bandits,	banditti.
Beau,	beaus,	beaux.
Cherub,	cherubs,	cherubim.
Focus,	focuses,	foci.
Formula,	formulas,	formulæ.
Gymnasium,	gymnasiums,	gymnasia.
Memorandum,	memorandums,	memoranda.
Nucleus,	nucleuses,	nuclei.
Radius,	radiuses,	radii.
Seraph,	seraphs,	seraphim.
Spectrum,	spectrums,	spectra.
Stamen,	stamens,	stamina.

"When a foreign word passes into common use, the tendency is to adopt the English plural."—*Bain*.

(h) Many foreign nouns retain their original plural forms. The following are among those most frequently used :

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Alumna (fem.),	alumnae.	Hypothesis,	hypotheses.
Alumnus (mas.),	alumni.	Madame,	Mesdames.
Amanuensis,	amanuenses.	Minutia,	minutiæ.
Analysis,	analyses.	Monsieur,	Messieurs.
Axis,	axes.	Nebula,	nebulae.
Basis,	bases.	Oasis,	oases.
Crisis,	crises.	Parenthesis,	parentheses.
Datum,	data.	Phenomenon,	phenomena.
Desideratum,	desiderata.	Proboscis,	proboscides.
Diæresis,	diæreses.	Stratum,	strata.
Ellipsis,	ellipses.	Synthesis,	syntheses.
Emphasis,	emphases.	Terminus,	termini.
Erratum,	errata.	Thesis,	theses.
Genus,	genera.	Vertebra,	vertebrae.

Observe that the ending *a* is generally changed to *æ*, *us* to *i*, *um* and *on* to *æ*, *is* to *es* or *ides*, etc.

EXERCISES.

(i) Write the singular and the two plurals of the following nouns :

Tribe, class, committee, people, beau, formula, gymnasium, medium, memorandum, stamen.

(j) Write the plural of the following nouns :

Alumnus, analysis, axis, datum, ellipsis, erratum, genus, hypothesis, minutia, monsieur, nebula, proboscis, stimulus, thesis, vertebra.

(k) Correct the following errors :

1. Dot your *is* and cross your *ts*. 2. The Misses Bishops.
3. The Jones's. 4. Dr. Browns. 5. Micetraps. 6. Father-in-laws. 7. Sisters-in-laws. 8. The deers are in that woods. 9. My Masonic brothers. 10. One strata.

Number of Pronouns.

328. Personal pronouns, and the adjective pronouns *this* and *that*, have irregular plural forms.

EXAMPLES.—I, *we*; thou, *ye*; you, *you*; he, *they*; she, *they*; it, *they*; this, *these*; that, *those*.

(a) *We*, *our*, and *us* are sometimes used in editorials, speeches, and proclamations, to represent but one; as, "*We* are convinced that the war will soon end." "*We*, Victoria, Queen of England," etc. *You*, *your*, and *yours* are singular as well as plural; as, "*Boys, you* may go" (pl.). "*James, you* may go" (sing.). "*You* may go" (pl.).

(b) Interrogative and conjunctive pronouns have the same form in both numbers; as, "*Who* is he?" "*Who* are they?" "*What* is a gnu?" "*What* are moccasins?"

(c) The adjective pronouns *one* and *other* are made plural regularly; as, One, *ones*; other, *others*. *Each*, *either*, *neither*, and *another* are used in the singular number only. *Both*, *few*, *many*, and *several* are used in the plural number only. *All*, *any*, *none*, *former*, *latter*, *first*, *last*, *same*, *some*, etc., have the same form for both numbers.

EXERCISE.

(d) In what number are the following pronouns?

I, thou, they, you, she, who, what, that (conjunctive), that (adjective), these, none, each, few, both, much, such, many, all, yourself, several.

Case.

Inductive Lesson.—1. The eagle caught a lamb. 2. I shot the eagle. 3. The eagle's nest is on the crag. 4. He came yesterday. 5. Did you see his books, Mary? 6. They rewarded him. 7. She bought your pony for me.

QUESTIONS.—*What caught a lamb? What did I shoot? Whose nest is on the crag? What is the subject of "caught"? In the third sentence, what word denotes possession? In how many ways is the noun "eagle" used in these three sentences? Has it the same form in all the sentences? In how many ways is the pronoun "he" used in the next three sentences? In the seventh sentence, what is the subject of the verb "bought"? The direct object? What word denotes possession? What is the object of "for"?*

The foregoing nouns and pronouns vary in use and form to show their relation to other words. They are therefore said to have *case*.

Eagle, I, nest, he, etc., are used as the subjects of finite verbs; and they are said to be in the *nominative case*. The noun *Mary* is used independently of the rest of the sentence; and it is said to be in the *nominative case*. *Eagle's, his*, and *your* denote possession; and they are said to be in the *possessive case*. *Lamb, eagle, books, him*, etc., are the direct objects of verbs; and they are said to be in the *objective case*. *Crag and me* are the objects of prepositions; and they are said to be in the *objective case*.

329. Case is a variation in the use and form of a noun or a pronoun to show its relation to other words.

Or, *case* is a variation in the use and form of a noun or a pronoun to show the relation of an object to an action, to another object, or to some condition or circumstance.

The term *case* is also applied to nouns and pronouns that are used independently (157). When thus applied, it refers merely to the *form* of the word.

330. There are three cases: the *nominative*, the *possessive*, and the *objective*.

Most personal, interrogative, and conjunctive pronouns vary in both use and form for the possessive and the objective case; as, *he, his, him; who, whose, whom*.

All nouns and pronouns vary in both use and form in denoting possession; as, "*John's* hat." "*Whose* skates?" "*Another's* book." "*My* ring."

All nouns and many pronouns have the same form for the nominative and the objective case; as, "*John* struck *James*;" "*James* struck *John*." "*This* is yours." "*He* had *this*."

Nominative Case.—Rules of Construction.

331. Rule 1. A noun or a pronoun used as the subject of a finite verb is in the **nominative case**. (107.)

A verb that changes its form to agree with the person and number of its subject is said to be limited by the person and number of its subject, and is called a *finite* verb. (390.) A verb that is not limited by the person and number of its subject is called a *non-finite* verb. (391.)

Examine the verbs in the following sentences :

FINITE VERBS.

She believes that I *am* brave.
She believes that you *are* brave.
When John *came*, we left.

NON-FINITE VERBS.

She believes me *to be* brave.
She believes you *to be* brave.
John *having come*, we left.

332. Rule 2. A noun or a pronoun used independently is in the **nominative case**. (157.)

(a) **Special Rule 1.** A pronoun used independently is sometimes in the **objective case**; as, "Ah, *me*!"

333. A noun or pronoun may be used *independently*—

1. By direct address.

EXAMPLE.—"Mary, will you remain?"

2. By specification.

EXAMPLES.—"First *Lessons* in Language." "Webster's *Diction-ary*."

3. By exclamation.

EXAMPLE.—"Alas, poor *Yorick*!"

4. By pleonasm.

EXAMPLE.—"*He* that hath ears to hear, let him hear."

334. Rule 3. A noun or a pronoun used absolutely is in the **nominative case**. (128.)

Absolutely, in a loosened sense; so called because it is *set free* from its relation to a finite verb or a preposition, but remains connected with a non-finite verb or a verbal.

(a) **Special Rule 2.** A noun or a pronoun used absolutely is sometimes in the **possessive case**. (338 b.)

335. A noun or a pronoun may be used *absolutely*—

1. As the subject of a non-finite verb, when it does not depend for its form upon any other word.

EXAMPLES.—“*Spring approaching*, flowers appear.” “*Shame being lost*, all virtue is lost.” “That depends upon *his remaining* true.”

In “I thought him to be my friend,” the pronoun *him* is the subject of the non-finite verb *to be*, but, as it depends for its form upon the verb *thought*, it is not used absolutely.

2. As the complement of a verbal, without modifying any word.

EXAMPLES.—“*To be a soldier* requires courage.” “The folly of *becoming a politician* is often seen.”

In “To study *grammar* is pleasant,” the noun *grammar* is the complement of the verbal *to study*, but it also modifies *to study*. It is therefore not used absolutely.

EXERCISES.

336. *Point out the nouns and pronouns in the nominative case:*

1. Wisdom is better than rubies. 2. The war being over, commerce revived. 3. Poor old man! What became of him, Joshua? 4. To be a brave soldier is not easy. 5. The folly of becoming a politician is often seen.

337. *Correct the following errors:*

1. Me and her went yesterday. 2. He is older than me. 3. Us objecting, they would not go.

Possessive Case.—Rules of Construction.

338. **Rule 4.** A noun or a pronoun used to modify another by denoting possession is in the **possessive case**. (111.)

(a) The term *possession* includes origin, and intended as well as actual possession; as, “*Euclid’s* Geometry.” (Origin.) “*Ladies’* hats for sale.” (Intended possession.) “*Their* books.” (Actual possession.)

(b) **Special Rule 2.** A noun or a pronoun used absolutely is sometimes in the **possessive case**; as, “*James’s* being called a coward did not make him one.” “He made no secret of *my* having

written the review."—*Irving*. "*Their* being Englishmen protected them."

The noun *James's* is used as the subject of the non-finite verb *being called*. It is said to be in the possessive case because it has the possessive form, but it does not denote possession. So also *my* and *their*. This use of the possessive form is restricted mainly to proper nouns and personal pronouns. They are thus used to avoid ambiguity.

James's, *my*, and *their* are generally (but incorrectly) said to modify the "participial nouns" that follow them by denoting possession.

Whitney says of *my*, in the sentence, "He knew of my having been left out:" "This possessive has almost always the value of the subjective genitive, or one which points out the subject of the verbal action."

Possessive Case-Forms of Nouns.

339. An *apostrophe* and the *letter s* are added to the nominative form of singular nouns to express the possessive case.

EXAMPLES.—"*Burns's* poems." "*The boy's* books." "*The tigress's* cage."

To avoid the repetition of the *s* sound, we say *conscience's sake*, *goodness's sake*, *Xerxes' army*, *the laws of Moses*, *the life of Jesus*; instead of *conscience's sake*, *Moses's laws*, etc.

340. An *apostrophe only* is added to plural nouns ending with *s*; and an *apostrophe* and the *letter s* are added to plural nouns not ending with *s*.

EXAMPLES.—"*The boys'* books." "*Ladies'* boots." "*Children's* toys." "*Mice's* tracks."

It will be seen that the nominative form precedes the apostrophe. Such forms as *deers'* and *sheeps'* (for the possessive plural of *deer* and *sheep*) are therefore incorrect.

(a) The possessive sign is added to the last word of a compound noun; as, "*My son-in-law's* wife." "*William Cullen Bryant's* poems."

(b) The possessive sign is added only to the last of two or more nouns denoting common possession; as, "*Huxley and Youmans's* Physiology." If they do not denote common possession, it is added to each noun; as, *Brooks's* and *Ray's* Arithmetics (= Brooks's Arithmetics and Ray's Arithmetics).

(c) The possessive sign is placed before the name of the object

possessed ; as, "The *heir* apparent's claim to the estate." (*Heir's* is in the possessive case ; *apparent* is an adjective.) "The *Secretary* of War's Report." "*Somebody* else's children." "Some *one* else's books."

Words modifying the name of the object possessed may be placed between it and the possessive noun ; as, "The heir's *apparent* claim." "John's *new* book."

(*d*) *Of* and an object should frequently be used instead of the possessive case in speaking of things without life, or of objects not personified ; as, "The roof *of the house*." (Not the *house's* roof.) "The height *of the tree*." (Better than the *tree's* height.) But, the *king's* crown ; the *horse's* tail ; the *mountain's* brow.

So also *the death of Lincoln*, instead of *Lincoln's death*, etc.

(*e*) The possessive case-form is sometimes used after the preposition *of* when it means *belonging to* ; as, "That picture of the *queen's*."

Although *queen's* is illogically used for *queen*, and is therefore the object of *of*, it is perhaps best to supply some noun, as *possession* or *property*, and dispose of it as modifying the noun supplied by denoting possession. So also, "That head *of yours*." "That husband *of mine*," etc.

Possessive Case-Forms of Pronouns.

341. The forms for the possessive case of personal, interrogative, and conjunctive pronouns are *irregular*.

EXAMPLES.—He, *his* ; I, *my*, *mine* ; who, *whose*.

(*a*) *Which* and *that* have no possessive forms. They are said to "borrow" the possessive of *who* ; as, "The tree *whose* fruit," etc.

(*b*) The pronouns *I*, *thou*, *you*, *she*, *we*, and *they* have each two possessive forms.

NOM.	POSS.	NOM.	POSS.
<i>I</i> ,	<i>my</i> , <i>mine</i> .	<i>She</i> ,	<i>her</i> , <i>hers</i> .
<i>Thou</i> ,	<i>thy</i> , <i>thine</i> .	<i>We</i> ,	<i>our</i> , <i>ours</i> .
<i>You</i> ,	<i>your</i> , <i>yours</i> .	<i>They</i> ,	<i>their</i> , <i>theirs</i> .

The first form is used when the name of the object possessed follows the possessive ; the second when it does not do so ; as, "*My* books are lost." "*Mine* are lost." "I have *your* books." "I have *yours*." "This is *her* book." "This book is *hers*."

In construing *hers* in "This book is hers," supply *book*. In construing *yours* in "*Yours* is lost," "This is *yours*," supply *possession* or *property*.

(*c*) *Mine* and *thine* are also sometimes used when the next word begins with a vowel-sound ; as, "All *mine* iniquities."

EXERCISES.

342. In what case are the following nouns and pronouns ?

1. General Washington's army slowly retreated. 2. Mr. Jones, whose house was burned ? 3. Grant's and Lee's forces were soon engaged. 4. Is this yours, or mine ? 5. Dim are those heads of theirs.—*Carlyle*.

343. Write the possessive singular and plural of—

Anna, attorney, beau, body, boy, brother, brother-in-law, Commissioner of Customs, daisy, Edward Brooks, empress, Frederick the Great, goose, house, I, it, James, kiss, Knight-Templar, major-general, man, motto, mouse, negro, Oliver Cromwell, one, ox, post-master-general, Queen of England, seraph, she, swine, the Princess of Thule, the two Miss Carys, valley, waif, Washington, who, wife, wolf.

344. Correct the following errors :

1. The mountains brow. 2. The soldiers's quarters. 3. Ladie's hats. 4. Mens' boots. 5. Geeses feathers. 6. Knight's-Templar. 7. Hanger's-on ; hangers'-on. 8. In William's and Mary's reign. 9. The fire destroyed both Stewart and Mabley's stores. 10. Somebody's else books. 11. Keats and Burns' poems. 12. Deers', sheeps'. 13. Charle's, James'. 14. Mrs. Hemans' poems. 15. At Smith's the grocer's.

(a) Can these sentences be made smoother or clearer ?

1. The well's depth is forty feet. 2. Have you seen my cousin's picture ? 3. The man being a foreigner delayed the appointment. 4. My sister-in-law's brother's dog was killed. 5. The house of the friend of my wife was destroyed by the Ohio River's floods.

Objective Case.—Rules of Construction.

345. Nouns and pronouns that modify verbs, verbals, adjectives, and adverbs are called the **objects** of the words that they modify.

346. *Verbs* and *verbals* may have direct, indirect, and adverbial objects. *Adjectives* and *adverbs* may have indirect and adverbial objects. *Prepositions* have objects.

347. The following pronouns have distinct *objective forms*. Care must be taken to use them properly:

I, *me*; thou, *thee*; he, *him*; she, *her*; we, *us*; ye (or you), *you*; they, *them*; who, *whom*.

348. Rule 5. A noun or a pronoun used as the direct object of a transitive verb or verbal is in the **objective case**. (131.)

When a verb or a verbal has a direct object, it is said to be *transitive* (394); as, "Columbus *discovered* America." "Gladstone *likes to fall* trees." "America *was discovered*." A verb or a verbal that does not have a direct object is called *intransitive*; as, "The leaves *are falling*." "The rose *is* beautiful." (395.)

A transitive verb or a preposition is said to "govern its object," because good usage requires the noun or the pronoun following it to be in the **objective case**.

Transitive means *passing over*; so called because in some instances the action passes from the person or thing represented by the subject to the person or thing represented by the object.

(a) A few verbs and verbals are followed by objects that are like them in meaning; as, "I *dreamed a dream*." "*To die* the death of the righteous, one *must live* a righteous life." These objects may be called *cognate objects*.

(b) **Special Rule 3.** A noun or a pronoun used as the cognate object of a transitive verb or verbal is in the **objective case**.

Cognate objects can generally be disposed of as direct objects. In "He struck James a hard *blow*," *blow* should be parsed as a cognate object, as *James* is the direct object.

349. Rule 6. A noun or a pronoun used as the indirect object of a verb, a verbal, an adjective, or an adverb, is in the **objective case**. (140, 146.)

350. Rule 7. A noun or a pronoun used as the adverbial object of a verb, a verbal, an adjective, or an adverb, is in the **objective case**. (151.)

351. Rule 8. A noun or a pronoun used as the object of a preposition is in the **objective case**. (154.)

EXERCISES.

352. In what case are the following nouns and pronouns ?

1. The heavens declare Thy glory, Lord. 2. Three times they tried to capture the fort. 3. They fought like brave men. 4. Lend me your ears. 5. A bird in flight is sustained and carried along by the action of the air against the motion of its wings.

353. Correct the following errors :

1. Let Anne and I go. 2. The bird flies like a robin flies. 3. None of we boys knew who it came from. 4. My son is to be married to I don't know who. 5. Who should I meet but my old friend ?

Apposition and Predication.

354. A noun or a pronoun used to modify another by representing the same person or thing is—

1. In *predication* with the word that it modifies, when the two terms are joined by a verb or a verbal.

EXAMPLES.—“*William is a blacksmith.*” “*Mr. Lyon, a senator, was elected governor.*” “*They elected Mr. Lyon governor.*” “*He desires to be a soldier.*” (121, 136.)

It is seen from these examples that a predicate noun or pronoun may modify the *subject* or the *direct object* of the verb that joins the two terms.

The subjective predicate noun or pronoun may be in the *objective* as well as the *nominative case*; as, “*She believed it to be him.*” The objective predicate noun or pronoun is always in the *objective case*.

2. In *apposition* with the word that it modifies, when the two terms are not joined by a verb or a verbal.

EXAMPLES.—“*William the blacksmith came yesterday.*” “*Mr. Lyon, a senator, was elected governor.*” (115.)

Appositive nouns and pronouns are generally used for *explanation*: they are, however, sometimes used for *emphasis*; as, “*William the farmer.*” (*Explanation.*) “*Thou, thou art the man.*” “*I myself will go.*” (*Emphasis.*)

355. Rule 9. A noun or a pronoun used in predication or apposition with another in the *nominative* or the *objective case*, agrees with it in case.

EXAMPLES.—“*Franklin the philosopher was a great statesman.*” “*I am he.*” “*Do you know William the blacksmith ?*” “*I believe it to be him.*”

356. Rule 10. A noun or a pronoun used in predication or apposition with another in the *possessive case*, is in the **nominative case**.

EXAMPLES.—“*At Baer the bookseller's.*” “*At Baer's, the bookseller.*” “*I was not aware of his being a soldier.*” “*The fact of its being he,*” etc. “*Which is the painter Raphael's greatest work ?*”

(a) **Special Rule 4.** A noun or a pronoun used in apposition with another in the *possessive case*, sometimes agrees with it in case ; as, “*His, my father's, honor was assailed.*” (Both words denote possession.)

(b) **Special Rule 5.** A noun or a pronoun used in apposition with a word or a combination of words not used as a noun, is in the **nominative case** ; as, “*You are too considerate ; something few persons are.*” “*You were silent ; a confession of guilt.*”

(c) Explanatory nouns and pronouns do not depend on the words that they modify for any property but case, and hence frequently differ from them in gender, person, and number ; as, “*I, your friend.*” “*I was eyes to the blind.*”

(d) Words representing parts are sometimes used in apposition with a word representing the whole ; as, “*The city, cannon, stores, every thing was in the possession of the enemy.*” “*Honor, wealth, happiness, all were lost.*”

(e) The adjective pronouns *each* and *one* are sometimes used in apposition with a preceding noun or pronoun ; as, “*They each carried a flag.*” “*They love each other.*” “*John and Mary love each other.*” “*Pupils should be kind to one another.*”

EXERCISES.

357. *In what case are the following nouns and pronouns ?*

1. The kaleidoscope is an optical toy. 2. I believed him to be my friend. 3. I believed him my friend. 4. She called her son Thomas, but not her son John. 5. She called her son Thomas, but the boys called him Tom. 6. The judge declared them to be dangerous persons. 7. They were declared to be dangerous persons.

358. Correct the following errors:

1. Is that him? 2. No, it is her. 3. She believed it to be him or I. 4. It might have been them. 5. It is not me you are in love with.

Gender, Person, and Number of Pronouns.

Inductive Lesson.—1. The — that I saw, etc. 2. The man that I saw, etc. 3. The books that I saw, etc. 4. He came. 5. I know who came.

QUESTIONS.—*Can you tell the gender of "that," in the first sentence? The number? Why not? State the gender, person, and number of "that," in the second sentence. In the third. To what word must you refer to ascertain these properties? Do "man" and "that" agree in gender, person, and number? "Books" and "that"? How do you tell the gender, person, and number of "he"? "Who"?*

The gender, person, and number of a pronoun can be told by referring to its *antecedent*. As it represents the same person or thing as its antecedent, it must have the same gender, person, and number; hence it is said to *agree* with its antecedent in gender, person, and number.

Rules of Construction.

359. Rule 11. A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in **gender, person, and number.**

(a) **Special Rule 6.** A pronoun having two or more antecedents representing the same person or thing, is in the **singular number**; if they represent different persons or things, it is in the **plural number**. If the antecedents differ in person, it prefers the **first** person to the **second**, and the **second** to the **third**. If one is in the masculine or the feminine gender, and the other is in the neuter, the gender of the pronoun is **indefinite**; as, "Yonder lives a *statesman* and *soldier*, *who* has served his country in legislative halls and on the battle-field." (*Who*, sing.) "*You* and *I*, *who* are," etc. (*Who*, first pers. ; *you* and *I* = *we*.) "The *ship* and the *passengers* *that* were lost," etc. (*That*, gender indef.)

Although all pronouns "agree with their antecedents in gender, person, and number," it is only in parsing *relative pronouns* that it is necessary to refer to the antecedent to ascertain these properties. (285.)

EXERCISE.

360. *In what gender, person, and number are the following pronouns?*

1. All that he has is yours.
2. Such as I have, give I thee.
3. Mental science endeavors to explain the manner in which the mind operates.
4. The Oxus rises in the plateau which separates Eastern and Western Turkistan.
5. He is pure himself whose thoughts are pure.

Declension.

361. **Declension** is a variation in the form of a noun or a pronoun to express *gender, person, number, and case*.

362. Declension of Nouns.

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
<i>Nominative.</i>	<i>Possessive.</i>	<i>Objective.</i>	<i>Nominative.</i>	<i>Possessive.</i>	<i>Objective.</i>
Boy,	boy's,	boy;	boys,	boys',	boys.
Lady,	lady's,	lady;	ladies,	ladies',	ladies.
Man,	man's,	man;	men,	men's,	men.
Brother,	brother's,	brother;	{ brothers,	brothers',	brothers.
			{ brethren,	brethren's,	brethren.
Goose,	goose's,	goose;	geese,	geese's,	geese.
Deer,	deer's,	deer;	deer,	deer's,	deer.
Pride,	pride's,	pride;			
Jones,	Jones's,	Jones;	cattle,	cattle's,	cattle.
			Joneses,	Joneses',	Joneses.
<i>Nominative.</i>		<i>Possessive.</i>	<i>Objective.</i>		
			SINGULAR.		
Mr. Weller,			Mr. Weller's,		
			PLURAL.		
{ Messrs. Weller,			Messrs. Weller's,		
{ The two Mr. Wellers,			The two Mr. Wellers',		
			SINGULAR.		
Son-in-law,			son-in-law's,		
			PLURAL.		
Sons-in-law,			sons-in-law's,		

EXERCISE.

363. *Write the declension of the following nouns:*

Clock, judge, volcano, foot, fish, sheep, beauty, Oliver Cromwell, Mr. Baker, court-martial, horseman, German, Knight-Tem-

plar, hanger-on, family, bandit, alumnus, people, duchess, lieutenant-governor.

Declension of Pronouns.

364. Personal Pronouns.

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
Nom.	Poss.	Obj.	Nom.	Poss.	Obj.
<i>First Person.</i>					
I,	my or mine,	me ;	we,	our or ours,	us.
<i>Second Person—Solemn Style.</i>					
Thou,	thy or thine,	thee ;	ye,	your or yours,	you.
<i>Second Person—Common Style.</i>					
You,	you or yours,	you ;	you,	your or yours,	you.
<i>Third Person—Masculine Gender.</i>					
He,	his,	him ;	they,	their or theirs,	them.
<i>Third Person—Feminine Gender.</i>					
She,	her or hers,	her ;	they,	their or theirs,	them.
<i>Third Person—Neuter Gender.</i>					
It,	its,	it ;	they,	their or theirs,	them.

365. Compound Personal Pronouns.

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
Myself,	—	myself ;	ourselves,	—	ourselves.
Ourselves,	—	ourselves ;	ourselves,	—	ourselves.
Thyself,	—	thyself ;	yourselves,	—	yourselves.
Yourself,	—	yourself ;	yourselves,	—	yourselves.
Himself,	—	himself ;	themselves,	—	themselves.
Herself,	—	herself ;	themselves,	—	themselves.
Itself,	—	itself ;	themselves,	—	themselves.

366. Interrogative and Conjunctive Pronouns.

SINGULAR AND PLURAL ALIKE.		
Nominative.	Possessive.	Objective.
Who,	whose,	whom.
Which,	(whose),	which.
That,	(whose),	that.
What,	—	what.
As,	—	as.

367. Compound Conjunctive Pronouns.

SINGULAR AND PLURAL ALIKE.		
Whoever,	whosoever,	whomever.
Whosoever,	whosoever,	whomsoever.
Whichever,	—	whichever.
Whichsoever,	—	whichsoever.
Whatever,	—	whatever.
Whatsoever,	—	whatsoever.

368. *Adjective Pronouns.*

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
<i>Nominative.</i>	<i>Possessive.</i>	<i>Objective.</i>	<i>Nominative.</i>	<i>Possessive.</i>	<i>Objective.</i>
One,	one's,	one ;	ones,	ones',	ones.
Other,	other's,	other ;	others,	others',	others.
Another,	another's,	another ;	_____	_____	_____
None,	_____	none ;	none,	_____	none.
This,	_____	this ;	these,	_____	these.
That,	_____	that ;	those,	_____	those.

EXERCISES.

369. *Write the declension of the following pronouns :*

I, thou, you, he, she, it, myself, ourself, thyself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, who, which, that, what, as, whoever, whichever, whatever, one, other, another, none, some, this, that, former, latter.

370. *Correct the following errors :*

Our's, her's, their's, yourn, yourn's, ourn, theirn, anothers', his', themselves, we uns, you uns, it's, theeself. Me and him came.

PRONOUNS AS SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIVES.

Rules of Construction.

371. **Rule 12.** A *subordinate conjunctive* is used to introduce a clause and join it to the word that the clause modifies. (198.)

(a) **Special Rule 7.** A *subordinate conjunctive* is sometimes used simply to introduce a clause. (202.)

EXERCISE.

372. *Point out the conjunctive pronouns in the following sentences, and the words modified by the clauses introduced by them :*

1. All that I have is thine. 2. Can you explain the manner in which the mind operates? 3. Who bought the flowers? I have forgotten who. 4. Whom shall I send? I can not tell whom. 5. If thou wouldst know what thou art, ascertain what thou canst do.

PARSING.

373. Parsing is the process of stating the classes, properties, and construction of a part of speech.

Parsing may be either *oral* or *written*.

To THE TEACHER.—See Appendix, p. 268, Sug. 10.

*Nouns and Pronouns.***374. FORMS OF PARSING.—WRITTEN PARSING.****1. How fast the river runs between its banks and the rushes, Floy!**

<i>cn</i>	<i>pp</i>	<i>cn</i>	<i>cn</i>	<i>pn</i>
<i>n</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>f</i>
<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>
<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>s</i>
<i>runs</i>	<i>banks; bet</i>	<i>between</i>	<i>da</i>	
<i>n</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>n</i>	

EXPLANATION FOR WRITTEN PARSING.—Draw a line under the word to be parsed, and write the initial letters in a *vertical column*. Do not use any punctuation-marks. When necessary, use a dotted line to separate the written parsing of two words, as *its* and *banks*.

ORAL PARSING.

River is a common noun, in the neuter gender, third person, and singular number. It is used as the subject of *runs*, hence it is in the nominative case.

Its is a personal pronoun, etc. It is used to modify *banks* by denoting possession, hence it is in the possessive case.

Floy is a proper noun, etc. It is used independently by direct address, hence it is in the nominative case.

WRITTEN PARSING.

2. To become a famous orator like Demosthenes the Athenian,

<i>cn</i>	<i>pn</i>	<i>cn</i>
<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>
<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>
<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>
<i>To become</i>	<i>like</i>	<i>Dem</i>
<i>n</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>n</i>

is a task requiring genius and years of toil. 3. I desire him to go.

<i>cn</i>	<i>cn</i>	<i>cn</i>	<i>pn</i>
<i>n</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>m</i>
<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>
<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>s</i>
<i>To become</i>	<i>req</i>	<i>of</i>	<i>to go</i>
<i>n</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>desire</i>
			<i>o</i>

ORAL PARSING.

Orator is a common noun, etc. It is used absolutely as the complement of *to become*, hence it is in the nominative case.

Demosthenes. It is used as the indirect object of *like*, hence it is in the objective case.

Athenian. It is used in apposition with *Demosthenes*, hence it is in the objective case.

Task. It is used in predication with *to become*, hence it is in the nominative case.

Him. It is the subject of *to go*, and with it is used as the direct object of *desire*, hence it is in the objective case.

WRITTEN PARSING.

4. *His being an Englishman gave him his freedom an hour later.*

<i>pp</i>	<i>cn</i>	<i>pp</i>	<i>acn</i>	<i>cn</i>
<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>n</i>
<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>
<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>
<i>being</i>	<i>his</i>	<i>gave</i>	<i>gave</i>	<i>later</i>
<i>p</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>o</i>

ORAL PARSING.

His. It is used absolutely as the subject of *being*, and is in the possessive case.

Englishman. It is used in predication with *his*, hence it is in the nominative case.

Him. It is used as the indirect object of *gave*, etc.

Freedom. It is used as the direct object of *gave*, etc.

Hour. It is used as the adverbial object of *later*, etc.

WRITTEN PARSING.

5. *Blessed are the meek.* 6. *Ours is lost.*

<i>adj cn</i>	<i>pp</i>
<i>o</i>	<i>o</i>
<i>s</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>p</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>are</i>	
<i>n</i>	<i>p</i>

ORAL PARSING.

Meek is an adjective used as a common noun, etc.

Ours. It is used to modify a noun omitted by denoting possession, hence it is in the possessive case.

EXERCISES.

375. Parse the nouns and pronouns in 336, 342, 352, and 357.

376. Give the rules of construction for the nouns and pronouns in 139, 144, 150, and 153.

Conjunctive Pronouns.

377. FORMS OF PARSING.—WRITTEN PARSING.

1. <u>God helps them</u>		<u>that help themselves.</u> — <u>Franklin.</u>	
<i>p n</i>	<i>pp</i>	<i>cp p</i>	<i>p n</i>
<i>m</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>m</i>
<i>S</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>S</i>
<i>s</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>s</i>
<i>helps</i>	<i>helps</i>	<i>help</i>	<i>spec</i>
<i>n</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>n</i>
	<i>n</i>		
	<i>in cl</i>		
	<i>them</i>		

ORAL PARSING.

That is a relative pronoun; its antecedent is *them*, hence it is in the common gender, third person, and plural number. It is used as the subject of *help*, hence it is in the nominative case. It is also used to introduce the clause *that help themselves*, and join it to *them*.

WRITTEN PARSING.

2. <u>Whoever succeeds will earn</u>		<u>what they offer.</u>	
<i>cc p</i>	<i>cp</i>	<i>cp</i>	
<i>c</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>n</i>	
<i>S</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>S</i>	
<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>s</i>	
<i>succeeds</i>	<i>offer</i>	<i>offer</i>	
<i>n</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>o</i>	
<i>in cl</i>	<i>in cl</i>	<i>in cl</i>	
	<i>w e</i>		

ORAL PARSING.

Whoever is a compound conjunctive pronoun, in the common gender, third person, and singular number. It is used as the subject of *succeeds*, hence it is in the nominative case. It is also used to introduce the clause *whoever succeeds*.

What is a conjunctive pronoun, etc. It is also used to introduce the clause *what they offer*, and join it to *will earn*.

EXERCISES.

378. Parse the nouns and pronouns in 372, 203, and 207.

379. Give the rules of construction for the nouns and pronouns in 212 and 213.

LANGUAGE TABLES.

380. Read the following tables aloud every day, until you become accustomed to using and hearing the correct forms :

1.	2.	4.
It is I ;	Is it I ?	It was I ; etc.
It is you ;	etc.	5.
It is he ;	3.	It was not I ; etc.
It is we ;	Was it I ?	6.
It is they.	etc.	That was I ; etc.
7.	8.	
If I were you ;	You are older than I ;	
If you were he ;	You are older than he ; etc.	
If you were she ;	9.	
If he were they ; etc.	Is he younger than I ?	

Other wrong forms may be corrected in the same way.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

(a) **Analyze the following sentences, and parse the nouns and pronouns in them :**

1. Gibraltar was taken by the Spaniards in 1704. 2. We should love one¹ another. 3. The trustees appointed my friend, Mr. Jones, teacher. 4. He that hath knowledge spareth his words.—*Prov. xvi, 27.* 5. The moon has twenty-eight mountains higher than Mont Blanc. 6. "They promised me one slice to-day," said he ; "I can give you that."—*Ruskin.* 7. Forgive us our debts as² we forgive our debtors. 8. We lose what is certain while we are seeking what is uncertain.—*Riley.* 9. Twenty thousand men are said to have been engaged. 10. Water boils at a lower temperature in a metallic vessel than in one of glass.

11. Tell Envy, when she would annoy,
That thousands want what you enjoy.—*Gay.*

12. I was eyes to the blind, and feet was I to the lame.—*Job xxix,*
15. 13. She was named Helen. 14. We desire her to be named Ruth. 15. Do you approve of his becoming a sailor ? 16. What-ever is popular deserves attention.—*Mackintosh.* 17. I bought him the toy this morning, at Smith³ the grocer's.⁴ 18. Blessed are the

pure in heart. 19. Hers^a was found. 20. I am the Lord's,^a and he is mine.—*Doddridge*. 21. This toil of ours^a should be a work of thine.—*Shak*. 22. The truly good^r are happy. 23. Order is a lovely nymph, the child of Beauty and Wisdom; her attendants are Comfort, Neatness, and Activity; her abode is the valley of happiness.—*Johnson*. 24. And whoso^a receiveth one such little child in my name, receiveth me.—*Matt. xviii, 5*.

25. Sorrow breaks seasons and reposing hours,

Makes^a the night morning, and the noontide night.—*Shak*.

1. 356 *e*. 2. *Adv., s. c.* 3. 340 *c*. Supply *store*. 4. 356. 5. 374, 6. 6. 340 *e*, note. 7. *Adj., c. n.* As a noun, it is modified by *the*; as an adjective, it is modified by *truly*. 8. *S., s. c.* 9. 211.

ERRORS TO BE CORRECTED.

(b) *One of the following sentences is correct. Correct the errors in the others:*

1. Who did this? Us girls.

ORAL CORRECTION.

This is incorrect. *Us*, a pronoun in the objective case, is used as the subject of *did*. In its place, *we*, a pronoun in the nominative case, should be used, and the sentence should be, *Who did this? We girls.*

WRITTEN CORRECTION.

Who did this? Us girls.
We
did

EXPLANATION.—Draw a line under the wrong word, and underneath write the correct word and the word that determines its form. The correct word should be written first, so that the sentence, as corrected, may be easily read.

WRITTEN CORRECTIONS.

2. *To desire to be him is foolish.*

he
to be

3. *Browns store.*

Brown's
store

4. *In Cooper's & Conard's store.*

Cooper

5. *Are them yourn?*

those yours

6. *Who were you with?*

whom
with

7. *It could not have been me.*

I
it

8. *The boys they left it.*

u w

9. *Hand them me.*

w a \wedge

EXPLANATION.—The oral correction of the foregoing sentences is easily given. *Uw* = unnecessary word; *wa* = wrong arrangement. The caret indicates the proper position of the misplaced word.

10. You are stronger than him. 11. It was them. 12. Me being away, they could not go. 13. Nothing must come between you and I. 14. Let you and I go. 15. May Mary and me go? 16. Tell me who you think did it. 17. Do you know who this cane belongs to? 18. Whom do they say that I am? 19. Whom did you say came with you? 20. It was her whom you thought took the book. 21. I do not know what is best to do. 22. There are few persons recite better. 23. Here's none but thee and I. 24. Let him be whom he may, I fear him not. 25. That tableaux was beautiful.

It should be remembered that grammatical forms were more loosely used in early English than at present, and that many expressions once sanctioned by good writers are now considered incorrect.

TO THE TEACHER.—See Appendix, p. 263, Sug. 11.

FOR REVIEW.

381. Review the remarks and exercises that are numbered.

VERBS.

382. A Verb is a word used with a noun or a pronoun to make a statement, to ask a question, or to give a command.

(a) A word from another part of speech is sometimes used as a verb; as, "This *out-Herods* Herod."—*Shak.* "I *thou* thee."

CLASSES OF VERBS.

Regular and Irregular Verbs.

Inductive Lesson.—1. I walk. He walked. They have walked a mile. 2. Birds fly. The birds flew away. The birds have flown away. 3. Go, went, going, gone, to go. Study, studied, studying, studied, to study.

QUESTIONS.—Which of the foregoing verbs express present time? Which past? Do “walked” and “have walked” both express past time? “Flew” and “have flown”? Which is the simplest form, “flew” or “have flown”? Will “go” make sense with “have” before it? Will “went”? “Going”? “Gone”? Does “going” represent the act as continuing? Does “studying”? “Studied”? Which verb begins with “to”?

To which of the foregoing verbs do we add “ed” to express past time? To which is “ed” not added?

Study, studied, studying, studied, and to study are called the principal parts of the verb *study*, because by means of them and the auxiliary verbs all the other parts of the verb can be formed. *Go, went, going, gone, and to go* are called the principal parts of *go* for the same reason.

Study is called a regular verb, because *ed* is added to it to form all its principal parts except *studying* and *to study*. *Go* is called an irregular verb, because *ed* is not added to it to form its principal parts.

Walk, study, go, and fly are the simplest forms used to express present acts. This form is called the *present indicative*. *Walked, studied, went, and flew* are the simplest forms used to express past acts. This form is called the *past indicative*. *Walking, studying, going, and flying* are used to represent acts as continuing. This form is called the *present participle*. *Walked, studied, gone, and flown* are used to represent acts as completed. This form is called the *perfect participle*. *To go and to study* are forms beginning with *to*. This form is called the *present infinitive*.

383. The **Principal Parts** of a verb are the following forms :

1. The **present indicative**, or the simplest form of the verb. It generally expresses present time.
2. The **past indicative**, or the simplest form of the verb that expresses past time.
3. The **present participle**, or the form of the verb that ends with *ing*. It generally represents an act as continuing.
4. The **perfect participle**, or the form of the verb that makes sense with the word *have* before it. It generally represents an act as completed.
5. The **present infinitive**, or the form of the verb that

usually begins with *to*. It generally represents an act as present at the time denoted by some other verb.

EXAMPLES.—“I desire him *to walk*.” “I desired him *to walk*.”

These forms are called *principal parts* because by means of them and the auxiliary verbs (398) all the other parts of the verb can be formed ; as, *can go* ; *have gone* ; *shall go* ; *might have gone*, etc. (See conjugation.)

The terms *participle* and *infinitive* are used throughout this work simply to name certain forms of verbs and verbals.

384. Verbs are divided according to their form into two classes : *Regular Verbs* and *Irregular Verbs*.

385. A **Regular Verb** is a verb that forms its past indicative and perfect participle by the addition of *ed* to the present indicative.

386. An **Irregular Verb** is a verb that does not form its past indicative and perfect participle by the addition of *ed* to the present indicative.

(a) A **Redundant Verb** is a verb that has more than one form for some of its principal parts ; as, *crow*, *crowed*, *crew* (past indicative). *Eat*, *ate*, *eat* (past indicative) ; *eaten*, *eat* (perfect participle).

(b) A **Defective Verb** is a verb that does not have all the principal parts ; as, *beware* (but one form) ; *can*, *could* (no participle and infinitive forms).

Most of the so-called irregular verbs are verbs of the *old*, or *strong*, conjugation. Regular verbs (i. e., verbs of the *ed* class) belong to the *new*, or *weak*, conjugation.

(c) List of Irregular Verbs.

Remark.—In the following list, words marked with a star (*) are generally either obsolete or new words. As a rule, they should not be used. Those marked with an R take also the regular ending *ed*. When two or more forms are given, the one sanctioned by the best modern usage is generally given first. Sometimes, however, the second form is preferred in certain uses ; as, “He was *struck* with a ball.” “She is *stricken* with sorrow.”

TO THE TEACHER.—See Appendix, p. 263, Sug. 12.

<i>Pres. Ind.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>Pres. Ind.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
Abide,	abode,	abode.	Dream,	R., dreamt,	R., dreamt.
Am, or be,	was,	been.	Drink,	drank,	drunk.
Arise,	arose,	arisen.	Drive,	drove,	driven.
Awake,	awoke, R.,	R., awoke.*	Dwell,	dwelt, R.,	dwelt, R.
Bear,	bore, bare,	born.	Eat,	ate,	eaten.
(bring forth),				eat,	eat.*
Bear (carry),	bore,	borne.	Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Beat,	beat,	beaten,	Feed,	fed,	fed.
		beat.	Feel,	felt,	felt.
Become,	became,	become.	Fight,	fought,	fought.
Befall, ¹	befell,	befallen.	Find,	found,	found.
Beget,	begot,	begotten,	Flee,	fled,	fled.
	begat,*	begot.*	Fling,	flung,	flung.
Begin,	began,	begun.	Fly,	flew,	flown.
Behold,	beheld,	beheld.	Forbear,	forbore,	forborne.
Bend,	bent, R.,*	bent, R.*	Forget,	forgot,	forgotten,
Bereave,	bereft, R., ²	bereft, R.*			forgot.*
Beseech,	besought,	besought.	Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.
Bet,	bet, R.,*	bet, R.*	Freeze,	froze,	frozen.
Bid,	bade,	bidden,	Freight,	R.,	R., freight.
	bid,	bid.	Get,	got,	got,
Bind,	bound,	bound.			gotten.
Bite,	bit,	bitten.	Gild,	R., gilt,	R., gilt.
Bleed,	bled,	bled.	Gird,	R., girt,	R., girt.
Blow,	blew,	blown.	Give,	gave,	given.
Break,	broke,	broken.	Go,	went,*	gone.
	brake,*		Grave,	R.,	R., graven.
Breed,	bred,	bred.	Grind,	ground,	ground.
Bring,	brought,	brought.	Grow,	grew,	grown.
Build,	built, R.,*	built, R.*	Hang, ³	hung,	hung.
Burn,	R., ³ burnt,	R., ³ burnt.	Have,	had,	had.
Burst,	burst,	burst.	Hear,	heard,	heard.
Buy,	bought,	bought.	Heave,	R., hove,	R., hoven.*
Cast,	cast,	cast.	Hew,	R.,	R., hewn.
Catch,	caught, R.,*	*caught, R.*	Hide,	hid,	hidden,
Chide,	chid,	chidden,			hid.
		chid.	Hit,	hit,	hit.
Choose,	chose,	chosen.	Hold,	held,	held,
Cleave	clove,	cloven.			holden.*
(split),	cleft,	cleft.	Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.
Cling,	clung,	clung.	Keep,	kept,	kept.
Clothe,	clad, R.,	clad, R.	Kneel,	knelt, R.,	knelt, R.
Come,	came,	come.	Knit,	knit, R.,	knit, R.
Cost,	cost,	cost.	Know,	knew,	known.
Creep,	crept,	crept.	Lade,	R.,	R., laden.
Crow,	R., crew,*	R.	Lay,	laid,	laid.
Cut,	cut,	cut.	Lead,	led,	led.
Dare, ⁴	R., durst,	R., durst.	Leave,	left,	left.
Deal,	dealt, R.,*	dealt, R.*	Lend, ⁷	lent,	lent.
Dig,	dug, R.,*	dug, R.*	Let,	let,	let.
Do,	did,	done.	Lie ⁸ (recline),	lay,	lain.
Draw,	drew,	drawn.	Light,	R., lit,*	R., lit.*

<i>Pres. Ind.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>Pres. Ind.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
Lose,	lost,	lost.	Slide,	slid,	slid,
Make,	made,	made.			slidden.
Mean,	meant,	meant.	Sling,	slung,	slung.
Meet,	met,	met.	Slink,	slunk,	slunk.
Mow,	R.,	R., mown.	Slit,	slit,	slit.
Pay,	paid,	paid.	Smell,	smelt, R.,	smelt, R.
Pen ⁹	R., pent,	R., pent.	Smite,	smote,	smitten.
(fence in),			Sow,	R.,	sown, R.
Plead,	R., plead,*	R., plead.*	Speak,	spoke,	spoken.
Prove, ¹⁰	R.,	R., proven.*		spake,*	
Put,	put,	put.	Speed,	sped, R.,*	sped, R.*
Quit,	quit, R.,	quit, R.	Spell,	R., spelt,	R., spelt.
Rap,* ¹¹	R., rapt,*	R., rapt.	Spend,	spent,	spent.
(seize with rapture),			Spill,	spilt, R.,	spilt, R.
Read,	read,	read.	Spin,	spun,	spun.
Rend,	rent,	rent.	Spit, ¹²	spit,	spit.
Rid,	rid,	rid.		spat,	
Ride,	rode,	ridden,	Split,	split,	split.
		rode.	Spoil,	R., spoilt,*	R., spoilt.*
Ring,	rang,	rung.	Spread,	spread,	spread.
	rung,		Spring,	sprang,	sprung.
Rise,	rose,	risen.		sprung,	
Rive,	rived,	riven, R.	Stand,	stood,	stood.
Run,	ran,	run.	Stave,	stove, R.,	stove, R.
Saw,	R.,	R., sawn.	Stay ¹³	staid,	staid.
Say,	said,	said.	(remain),		
See,	saw,	seen.	Steal,	stole,	stolen.
Seek,	sought,	sought.	Stick,	stuck,	stuck.
Seethe,	R., sod,*	R., sodden.*	Sting,	stung,	stung.
Sell,	sold,	sold.	Stink,	stank,	stunk.
Send,	sent,	sent.		stunk,	
Set,	set,	set.	Strew,	R.,	R., strewn.
Shake,	shook,	shaken.	Stride,	strode,	stridden,
Shape,	R.,	R., shapen.*		strid,	strid.
Shave,	R.,	R., shaven.	Strike,	struck,	struck.
Shear,	R., shore,*	R., shorn.		stricken,	stricken.
Shed,	shed,	shed.	String,	strung,	strung.
Shine,	shone, R.,*	shone, R.*	Strive,	strove,	striven.
Shoe,	shod,	shod.	Strow,	R.,	strown, R.
Shoot,	shot,	shot.	Swear,	swore,	sworn.
Show,	showed,	shown, R.		sware,*	
Shred,	shred,	shred.	Sweat,	sweat, R.,	sweat, R.
Shrink,	shrank,	shrunk,*	Sweep,	swept,	swept.
	shrunk,	shrunk.	Swell,	R.,	swollen, R.
Shut,	shut,	shut.	Swim,	swam,	swum.
Sing,	sang,	sung.		swum,	
	sung,		Swing,	swung,	swung.
Sink,	sank,	sunk.	Take,	took,	taken.
	sunk,		Teach,	taught,	taught.
Sit,	sat,	sat.	Tear,	tore,	torn.
Slay,	slew,	slain.	Tell,	told,	told.
Sleep,	slept,	slept.	Think,	thought,	thought.

<i>Pres. Ind.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>Pres. Ind.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
Thrive,	R., thrive,	R., thriven.	Wed,	R., wed,*	R., wed.*
Throw,	threw,	thrown.	Weep,	wept,	wept.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.	Wet,	wet, R.,*	wet, R.*
Tread,	trod,	trodden,	Win,	won,	won.
		trod.	Wind,	wound,	wound.
Wake,	R., woke,*	R., woke.*	Work,	R., wrought,	R., wrought.
Wax,	R.,	R., waxen.*	Wring,	wrung,	wrung.
Wear,	wore,	worn.	Write,	wrote,	written.
Weave,	wove, R.,*	woven, R.*			

1. *Derivative verbs* generally form their principal parts in the same way as the words from which they are derived ; as, *befall, mistake, undergo*. 2. The irregular form is preferred. 3. The regular form is preferred. 4. *Dare*, to challenge, is regular. 5. *Went* is a contraction of *wended*, the past indicative of the A.-S. *wendan*, to wend or go. 6. *Hang*, to suspend by the neck, is generally regular. 7. Do not use *loan* as a verb. 8. *Lie*, to tell a falsehood, is regular. 9. *Pen*, to write, is regular. 10. The form *proven* should not be used. 11. *Rap*, to knock, is regular. 12. *Spit*, to pierce with a spit, is regular. 13. *Stay*, to cause to stop, is regular.

Defective Verbs.

<i>Pres. Ind.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>Pres. Ind.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
Beware. ¹		_____	Must,	must.	_____
Can, ²	could.	_____	Ought, ⁵	ought.	_____
Do (aux.), ³	did.	_____		quoth. ⁶	_____
Have (aux.), ³	had.	_____	Shall,	should.	_____
List,		_____	Will (aux.), ³	would.	_____
May,	might.	_____	Wot, ⁷	wist.	_____
Meseems, ⁴	meseemed.	_____			
Methinks, ⁴	methought.	_____			

1. *Beware*, from *be* and *aware*, has no participles. It is used in the present tense, and imperative or infinitive mood. 2. *Can*, *do*, *have*, *may*, *must*, *ought*, *shall*, and *will* are called *auxiliary verbs*. They have no participles or infinitives. 3. *Do*, *have*, and *will* are frequently used as *principal verbs*. *Would* (= wish) is sometimes thus used in the present indicative. 4. The prefix *me* is the dative of the pronoun. The subject is the clause that follows the verb. 5. *Ought* is called by some grammarians a principal verb. 6. *Quoth* is used in the past indicative only. It is equivalent to *said* ; as, "Quoth the raven, Nevermore." 7. *Wot* (A.-S. *witan*, to know) is used in the Bible, etc. The present infinitive is *wit*, which is used in *to wit*, meaning *namely*.

EXERCISES.

387. Write all the principal parts of the verbs in the following list :

Raise, rise, lie (to recline), lay, set, sit, tell, find, flow, flee, fly, try, steal, ride, love, lend, take, quit, prove, am, go, freeze, lose, loose, pay, say, send, shoot, spend, think, wear, bite, catch, may, forget, show, ought, must, do, blow, break, drive, feel, give, grow, know, leave, tear, choose, understand.

388. *State the principal parts of the verbs in the following list, using "I" as the subject :*

Follow this form : "I study," "I studied," etc. Add "it" when the verb requires a direct object, thus : "I see it," "I saw it," etc.

Study, see, saw, swim, ring, come, begin, stand, run, sing, cry, laugh, feed, eat, heat, speak, lead, read, sell, shake, sleep, teach, learn, write, throw, build, burn, dig, hide, work.

Finite and Non-finite Verbs.

Inductive Lesson.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. She believes <i>that I am</i> brave. | 7. She believes <i>me to be</i> brave. |
| 2. She believes <i>that you are</i> brave. | 8. She believes <i>you to be</i> brave. |
| 3. She believes <i>that he is</i> brave. | 9. She believes <i>him to be</i> brave. |
| 4. She believes <i>that they are</i> brave. | 10. She believes <i>them to be</i> brave. |
| 5. <i>Because he has come</i> , I shall go. | 11. <i>He having come</i> , I shall go. |
| 6. <i>Because they have come</i> , I shall go at once. | 12. <i>They having come</i> , I shall go. |

QUESTIONS.—*What is the subject of the verb "am," in the first sentence? Of the verb "are," in the second? Of "is," in the third? In what person is the pronoun "I"? "You"? "He"? Does the verb change its form to agree with the person of its subject? May we say "I are"? "You is"? "He are"? Is the verb "am" limited to a certain form by the person of its subject "I"? Is "are" limited in the same way by "you"? Is "is" by "he"? May not these verbs be called limited verbs? Since finite means limited, what may they be called?*

What is the subject of the verb "to be," in the seventh sentence? In the eighth? In the ninth? In what person is "me"? "You"? "Him"? Does the verb "to be" change its form to suit the person of its subject? Why may it be called a non-finite verb?

What is the subject of "is," in the third sentence? Of "are," in the fourth? Does the verb have the same form for both numbers? Is it limited by the number of its subject? What is the subject of "to be," in the ninth sentence? Of "to be," in the tenth sentence? Does "to be" change its form to suit the number of its subject? Does "has come," in the fifth sentence? "Have come," in the sixth? "Having come," in the eleventh? "Having come," in the twelfth?

The verbs *am, are, is, has come, and have come* are limited to a certain form by the person and number of their subjects, hence they are called *finite verbs*.

The verbs *to be and having come* are not limited to a certain form

by the person and number of their subjects, hence they are called *non-finite verbs*.

389. Verbs are divided, according to their use as related to subjects, into *Finite Verbs* and *Non-finite Verbs*.

390. A **Finite Verb** is a verb that is limited to a certain form by the person and number of its subject.

391. A **Non-finite Verb** is a verb that is not limited to a certain form by the person and number of its subject.

(a) *Finite verbs* are the predicates of sentences and unabridged clauses ; as, "I believe that he *is* my friend."

(b) *Non-finite verbs* are generally used as the predicates of abridged clauses ; as, "I believe him *to be* my friend." (210.)

EXERCISE.

392. Point out five **finite** and four **non-finite verbs** in the following sentences, and the **subject** of each :

1. Beauty is an all-pervading presence.—*Channing*.
2. Let us go.
3. They believed the place to be abandoned by the enemy.
4. Mazarin desired Cromwell to take part with France in a war against Spain.
5. We unite *him* and *self*, forming the word *himself*.

Transitive and Intransitive Verbs.

Inductive Lesson.—1. John struck James. 2. I see it. 3. Thou hast wandered too long. 4. He wept. 5. The moon had climbed the highest hill. 6. The snow had begun in the gloaming. 7. My father wishes me to go at once.

QUESTIONS.—*Whom did John strike? From whom, and to whom, does the act of striking pass? What word is the direct object of "struck"? Point out the verbs that are followed by direct objects. Does "wept" have a direct object? Does "see"? Does "hast wandered"?*

In the foregoing sentences the verbs *struck*, *see*, *had climbed*, and *wishes* have direct objects. They are called *transitive verbs*.

The verbs *wept*, *hast wandered*, *have begun*, and *to go* do not have direct objects. They are called *intransitive verbs*.

393. Verbs are divided, according to their use as related to objects, into *Transitive Verbs* and *Intransitive Verbs*.

394. A **Transitive Verb** is a verb that has a direct object.

EXAMPLES.—“He *built* me a bonnie *bower*.” “The *bower* *was built*.” (In this sentence the direct object is used as the subject.) (348, n. 3.)

395. An **Intransitive Verb** is a verb that does not have a direct object.

EXAMPLES.—“Summer *wanes*.” “Flowers *are fresh*.”

(a) A verb may be transitive in one sentence and intransitive in another; as, “He *studies grammar*.” (Tr.) “He *studies*.” (Intr.) “I *can not see you*.” (Tr.) “I *can not see*.” (Intr.) “She *reads the poem* with taste.” (Tr.) “She *reads* with taste.” (Intr.) “Soft eyes *looked love*.” (Tr.) “He *looked* again.” (Intr.)

(b) A verb that is usually intransitive sometimes becomes transitive; as, “Napoleon *marched* his *army* across the Alps” (i. e., caused his army to march). “The raftsmen *floated* the *wood* down the river.” “The groom *walked* the *horse*.” “I *dreamed a dream*.” (348 a.) “We *must live a righteous life*.” “Soft eyes *looked love* to eyes that spake again.”—Byron. “The child *cried herself* to sleep.” “I *laughed myself* hoarse.” “He *looked* the fierce *animal* in the eye.”

(c) Some transitive verbs are followed by two objects, a *direct* and an *indirect* object; as, “Forgive *us* (ind.) our *debts*” (dir.). “Tell *me* the old, old *story*.” “Write *me* a *letter* from home.”

Frequently, only the direct object is used; as, “He told the *story*.” Sometimes, only the indirect object is used; as, “He told *me*.” (In this sentence, *me* should be called the direct object of *told*.)

EXERCISE.

396. Point out the four transitive and three intransitive verbs in the following sentences. Also, five direct and two indirect objects:

1. He giveth his beloved sleep.—*Psalm cxxvii*, 2.
2. General McClure, who commanded the troops, destroyed Fort George.
3. Where is the little girl who brought me the flowers this morning?
4. To spend too much time in studies is sloth.—*Bacon*.
5. The properties of matter are of two classes, physical and chemical.

PROPERTIES OF VERBS.

397. The **Properties** of verbs are *voice, mood, tense, person, and number.*

All these properties belong to finite verbs. Non-finite verbs have *voice, mood, and tense.*

398. *May, can, must, might, could, would, should, ought, be* (with its variations ¹), *do, did, have, had, shall and will*, help other verbs to express their grammatical properties, hence they are called **auxiliary verbs**.

EXAMPLES.—"I *can* go."² "Thou *canst* go."² "He *has* gone."
"They *have* gone." "She *might* have gone."

1. The variations of *be* are *am, art, are, is, was, wast, were, wert, being, and been.*

2. In the verbs *can go* and *canst go* the auxiliaries are finite, as they change their form to agree with the person and number of the subject. *Go* is an infinitive, as it undergoes no change of form to agree with the person and number of the subject. The two words combined form a finite verb.

Voice.

Inductive Lesson.—1. John strikes James. 2. James is struck. 3. His father wishes you to punish him. 4. His father wishes him to be punished. 5. The birds sing sweetly. 6. Close his eyes. 7. His work is done.

QUESTIONS.—*Who is the actor in the first sentence? Who receives the act? In the second sentence, who receives the act? How is the noun "James" used, in the first sentence? In the second? What change in the form of the verb? What is the subject of the verb "to punish"? The direct object? Is the direct object of "to punish," in the third sentence, made the subject of "to be punished," in the fourth? How has the verb changed its form? Can you make such a change with the fifth sentence? Why not? With the sixth? Why? In the seventh sentence, what is the subject of the verb "is done"? Does "work" denote the actor, or the receiver of the act? Can you change the sentence so as to make the noun "work" the direct object of the verb?*

The transitive verb *strike* may be used to show that its subject represents the actor, and it may also be used to show that its subject represents the receiver of the act; hence it is said to have the property of *voice*.

The intransitive verb *sing* is used to show that its subject repre-

sents the actor, but it can not be used to show that its subject represents the receiver of the act; hence it is said not to have the property of *voice*.

The verb *strikes* shows that its subject represents the actor, hence it is said to be in the *active voice*. The verb *is struck* changes its form to show that its subject represents the receiver of the act; hence it is said to be in the *passive voice*.

QUESTIONS.—*What other verbs in the foregoing sentences are in the active voice? In the passive voice?*

399. Voice is a variation in the use and form of a transitive verb to show whether its subject represents the actor or the receiver of the act.

400. There are two voices: the *active* and the *passive*.

401. A transitive verb used to show that its subject represents the actor, is in the **active voice**.

EXAMPLES.—“James *returned* the book.” “Spain *declared* war against England.”

402. A transitive verb used to show that its subject represents the receiver of the act, is in the **passive voice**.

EXAMPLES.—“The book *was returned*.” “War *was declared*.”

Some grammarians hold that intransitive verbs may be in the active voice. It is, of course, true that the subjects of many intransitive verbs represent the persons or things performing the actions expressed by the verbs; but as intransitive verbs can not be used so that their subjects represent the persons or things receiving the actions expressed by the verbs, it is thought best to restrict the property of voice to transitive verbs.

403. The *direct object* of a transitive verb in the active voice becomes the *subject* of the verb in the passive voice.

EXAMPLES.—“James *returned* the book.” (Tr., act.) “Spain *declared* war.” (Tr., act.) “The book *was returned*.” (Tr., pass.) “War *was declared* by Spain.” (Tr., pass.)

404. The *passive-voice form*, of a verb consists of the auxiliary verb *be* (in any one of its forms) combined with the perfect participle of the verb.

EXAMPLES.—“Our friends *are* not *forgotten*.” “When *was* it *bought* ?” (398, 1.)

Tests for the passive voice: Is the verb in the form described in 404 ? Can its subject be made the object of the verb in the active voice ? Can it be followed by *by* and the name of the actor ?

(a) Transitive verbs that do not express action are in the *active voice* when followed by a direct object, and in the *passive voice* when the direct object is made the subject ; as, “He *resembles* his sister.” (Act.) “I *have* the hat.” (Act.) “The company *owned* the building.” (Act.) “The building *was owned* by the company.” (Pass.)

(b) The *passive voice* is chiefly used—

1. To state the act and the receiver of the act, without mentioning the actor ; as, “James *was struck*.” (The act and the person who received the act are known ; but the person who struck James is not mentioned.)

2. To give variety of expression ; as, “Heat *expands* metals.” “Metals *are expanded* by heat.”

(c) A few intransitive verbs are sometimes used in the passive form, though they are not in the passive voice ; as, “The melancholy days *are come*.” “He *is fallen*.” (428.)

(d) If a verb in the active voice has a direct and an indirect object, the direct object generally becomes the subject of the verb in the passive voice, and the indirect object generally becomes the object of a preposition ; as, “We offered *him* (ind. obj.) the money” (dir. obj.). “The money *was offered* to *him*.”

Sometimes the indirect object of a verb in the active voice remains the indirect object of the verb when it is changed to the passive voice ; as, “We offered *him* the money.” “The money *was offered him*.” (Ind. obj.) Generally, it is better to supply a preposition.

(e) Sometimes, though rarely, the indirect object of a verb in the active voice is made the subject of the verb in the passive voice, and the direct object remains the direct object ; as, “We offered *him* the money.” “*He* *was offered* the money.”

These forms should be used with caution.

(f) The object of a preposition is sometimes made the subject of a verb in the passive voice, and the preposition is combined with the verb ; as, “They *laughed* at him.” (Intrans.) “He *was laughed*

at." (Trans., pass.) "*Have they sent for him?*" (Intrans.) "*Has he been sent for?*" (Trans., pass.)

EXERCISES.

405. *In the following sentences point out seven transitive verbs in the active voice, five in the passive voice, and two intransitive verbs. Change the voice of the transitive verbs.*

1. Iron and platinum possess the property of cohesion. 2. Whom did the Queen of Sheba visit? 3. The principle of the lever was discovered by Archimedes. 4. When did Napoleon fight the battle of the Pyramids? 5. No one can be happy without virtue.—*Cicero*. 6. Twenty-nine were ordered to be tied up.—*Macaulay*. 7. At the battle of the Nile only a few of the French vessels escaped, the English destroying or capturing all the rest. 8. It was lost sight of. 9. We often call Shakespeare myriad-minded. 10. Do many persons believe Venus to be inhabited by beings like ourselves?

406. *Correct the following errors:*

1. Was the song sang well? 2. The wine was drank in her absence. 3. I was thrown the ball. 4. It was left fall. 5. It was forgot.

Mood.

Inductive Lesson.—1. James studied the lesson. 2. If James study, he will improve. 3. James can study the lesson. 4. Study the lesson, James. 5. I desire James to study the lesson. 6. James having studied the lesson, the teacher heard him recite it.

QUESTIONS.—*Is the act of studying expressed in different ways in these sentences? In which sentence is it expressed as a fact? In which is James commanded to study? In which is the act expressed as merely thought of? In which sentence does the verb show that James has the power to study the lesson? In which sentence is the act expressed by the use of "to" as part of the verb? In which do we find participles used? In what way does the first sentence express the act of studying? The second? The third? The fourth? What form of the verb is used in the first sentence? The second? The third? The fourth? The fifth? The sixth?*

The verb *study* may be changed in form and use to express the act of studying in different ways, with reference to the person represented by its subject; hence it has the property of *mood*.

In the first sentence, *studied* is used in expressing a fact ; and it is said to be in the *indicative mood*. In the second sentence, the act of studying is merely thought of ; and the verb *study* is said to be in the *subjunctive mood*. In the third sentence, *can study* expresses power or ability ; and it is said to be in the *potential mood*. The fourth sentence expresses a command ; and the verb *study* is said to be in the *imperative mood*. In the fifth sentence, the infinitive *to study* is used in expressing a fact ; and it is said to be in the *infinitive mood*. In the sixth sentence, *having studied* is used in expressing a fact ; and it is said to be in the *participial mood*.

407. Mood is a variation in the use and form of a verb to show the manner in which an act or state is expressed with reference to the person or thing represented by its subject.

The word *mood* is also used to name this property.

408. There are six moods : the *indicative*, the *subjunctive*, the *potential*, the *imperative*, the *infinitive*, and the *participial*.

409. The first four belong to *finite verbs* ; the last two belong to *non-finite verbs*.

See Appendix, p. 260, note 3, p. 261, note 5.

Moods of Finite Verbs.

410. A verb in the *indicative mood* is used in expressing a fact.

EXAMPLE.—“ General Grant *died* July 23, 1885.”

(a) The fact may sometimes be referred to as a doubt ; as, “ If Saturn *is* large, Jupiter *is* larger.”

An assumed fact may be referred to in the same way ; as, “ If I *am deceived* [as I probably am], I am lost.”

(b) The indicative mood is sometimes used in expressing a doubt ; as, “ If it *rains* to-morrow, I shall not go.”

411. The indicative mood may be used *interrogatively*.

EXAMPLE.—“ When *did* Napoleon III *die* ? ”

412. A verb in the **subjunctive mood** is used in expressing what is *merely thought of*.

EXAMPLES.—"If it *rain* to-morrow, I shall not go." (Doubt.) "I would I *were* a boy again." (A wish.) "If I *were* you, I would go." (A supposition.) "If thou hadst been here, my brother *had* not *died*." (A mere conclusion.)

(a) In the subjunctive mood, *be* is used instead of *am*, *are*, and *is*, and *were* instead of *was*. (448.)

(b) A verb in the subjunctive mood is generally used in a dependent proposition, or clause ; as, "*If I go*, I shall go alone."

(c) *If*, *though*, *that*, *lest*, *except*, *unless*, *whether*, or a similar conjunction, generally precedes the subjunctive mood ; as, "*If I were*," etc. "*If I had been*," etc.

The verb or its first auxiliary is sometimes placed before the subject, and the conjunction *if* is then omitted ; as, "*Were I*," etc. "*Had I been*," etc. In analysis, the omitted conjunction should be supplied.

413. A verb in the **potential mood** is used in expressing power, permission, possibility, compulsion, duty, inclination, or a wish.

EXAMPLES.—"I *can go*." "I *may go*." "It *may rain*." "I *must go*." "I *should go*." "I *would go*." "*May you prosper*!"

414. The signs of the potential mood are the auxiliaries *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*, and *ought*.

"*Shall* in the sense of *must*, and *will* when it expresses volition, belong rather to the potential mood than to the indicative ; but, to avoid troublesome distinctions, they are always considered as belonging to the indicative mood."—*Keri*.

415. The potential mood may be used *interrogatively*.

EXAMPLES.—"May I go ?" "My father, *must I stay* ?"

416. A verb in the **imperative mood** is used in expressing a command or a request.

EXAMPLES.—"Go away." "*Forgive* our trespasses."

(a) The imperative mood is sometimes used in expressing permission, or a strong wish ; as, "*Go and play*." "God *pity* them both."

417. The *subject* of a verb in the imperative mood is generally *you, thou, or ye*, understood.

EXAMPLES.—“*Come here*” (= *Come you here*). “*Honor thy father and thy mother.*”

(a) Sometimes the subject is expressed ; as, “*Cleanse thou me from secret faults.*”—*Ps. xix, 12*.

(b) Sometimes the subject is in the first or the third person ; as, “*Cursed be I that did so.*”—*Shak.* “*Come ye, who love the Lord.*”—*Watts.* “ ‘*Now tread ye a measure,*’ said young *Lochinvar.*”—*Scott.* “*Be it so.*”—*Webster.* “*Thy kingdom come.*” “*Laugh those who can, weep those who may.*”—*Scott.*

Moods of Non-finite Verbs.

418. A verb in the *infinitive mood* consists of the form that generally begins with *to*, and it is used in expressing a fact.

EXAMPLES.—“The commander ordered the city *to be burned.*” “He believed his friend *to have been wronged.*” “Before these days rose up Theudas, boasting himself *to be* somebody.”—*Acts i, 36.*

(a) The word *to* may be called the sign of the infinitive mood. It should not be separated from the rest of the verb by another word ; as, “*Frequently to study,*” or “*To study frequently ;*” not “*To frequently study.*” It should not end a sentence.

(b) *To* is not used after the active voice of the verbs *bid, let, make, hear, feel,* and *see* (and equivalents of *see*, as *behold, observe,* etc.) ; and sometimes after *dare, have, help, need,* etc. ; as, “*Bid him take the money.*” “*Let him die.*” “*I felt something touch me.*”

This rule applies to verbals as well as to non-finite verbs.

Remember that the non-finite verb is *take, die, touch ; not to take, to die, to touch.*

(c) A verb in the infinitive mood is used as the predicate of a *clause*, but not of a sentence ; as, “*Let him go.*” “The commander ordered *the city to be burned*” (= *that the city be burned*). (210, etc.)

419. A verb in the *participial mood* consists of one or more participles, and is used in expressing a fact.

EXAMPLES.—“*Spring returning,* flowers appear.” “The letter *having been written,* his work was done.” “I never heard of this *being*

questioned."—*Bishop McIlwaine*. "Their being Englishmen protected them."

(a) A verb in the participial mood is frequently used as the predicate of a clause. See examples, 419. (210, etc.)

(b) Sometimes a non-finite verb in the participial mood is co-ordinate with a finite verb; as, "The crisped brooks . . . *ran* nectar, *visiting* each plant."—*Milton*. (Visiting = *and visited*.) "The words *self* (sing.) and *selves* (plu.) are added to *my*, *our*, *thy*, *your*, *him*, *her*, *it*, and *them*, forming a class of compound personal pronouns, which have two principal uses."—*Whitney* ("Ess. of Eng. Gr.," p. 71). (*Are added* and *forming* are the predicates of the sentence.) "As for Saul, he *made* havoc of the church, *entering* into every house, and *haling* men and women *committed* them to prison."—*Acts viii*, 3. "Ulysses *wakes*, not *knowing* where he was."—*Pope*.

Compare the following sentences: "I . . . *am* a jealous God, *visiting* the iniquities . . . and *showing* mercy . . ."—*Bible*. "I . . . *am* a jealous God, and *visit* the iniquities . . . and *show* mercy . . ."—*Common Prayer-Book*.

EXERCISES.

420. In what mood are the following verbs?

1. Frederick the Great became¹ king of Prussia in 1740. 2. Charge, Chester, charge!—*Scott*. 3. I would go, if I were you. 4. Ring out, wild bells, and let him die!—*Tennyson*. 5. We insist on everything being proved.—*Chalmers*. 6. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this.—*Lincoln*. 7. Asbury having come, we remained. 8. O that I had gone! 9. I might have felt something touching me. 10. God said, Let there be light!

1. In the indicative mood there are 5 verbs; subjunctive, 2; potential, 3; imperative, 5; infinitive, 2; and participial, 3.

421. Correct the following errors:

1. Please, can I go? 2. I wish I was in Dixie. 3. Let him to go. 4. Would I was her. 5. He has n't gone, and he don't intend to.

Tense.

Inductive Lesson.—1. James studies his lesson. 2. James studied his lesson. 3. James will study his lesson. 4. Run, ran, will run; come, came, shall come; do, did, shall do, will do.

QUESTIONS.—Read the verbs in the foregoing sentences. Which verb expresses a present act? Which a past act? Which a future act? Which of the verbs, beginning with "run," can be used to express a present act? A past act? A future act? Do they differ in form? Into what three parts do we divide time? Do these verbs change their form to distinguish time?

5. James studies his lesson to-day. 6. James has studied his lesson to-day. 7. James studied his lesson when I came. 8. James had studied his lesson when I came. 9. James will study his lesson when I come. 10. James will have studied his lesson when I come. 11. Run, has run; ran, had run; will run, will have run.

QUESTIONS.—Do the verbs in the fifth and sixth sentences refer to present time? Does the fifth sentence state that James has completed the act of studying? Does the sixth? May I say, "James has studied yesterday"? Why not? Does "has studied" represent an act as completed in present time? In the seventh sentence, to what time does "studied" refer? "Had studied," in the eighth? Which one simply represents a past act? Which one represents an act as completed in past time? Which two verbs refer to future time? Which one shows that the studying is completed in future time? Mention the three verbs that show that the act of studying is completed. Which one shows that it is completed in present time? In past time? In future time? Do the verbs change their form to show that an act is completed?

The verb *study* may be changed in use and form to express the act of studying in different times, hence it has the property of *tense*.

In the first sentence (and the fifth), it represents a present act; and it is said to be in the *present tense*. In the sixth sentence, it represents the act as completed in present time; and it is said to be in the *present-perfect tense*. In the second sentence (and the seventh), it represents a past act; and it is said to be in the *past tense*. In the eighth sentence, it represents the act as completed in past time; and it is said to be in the *past-perfect tense*. In the third sentence (and the ninth), it represents a future act; and it is said to be in the *future tense*. In the tenth sentence, it represents the act as completed in future time; and it is said to be in the *future-perfect tense*.

QUESTIONS.—Which tenses are expressed by one word? Which tenses use the auxiliary "have" (or "has")? Which ones use "shall" or "will"?

422. Tense is a variation in the use and form of a verb to distinguish time.

423. There are six tenses: the *present*, the *present-perfect*, the *past*, the *past-perfect*, the *future*, and the *future-perfect*.

424. The present and the past tense may each be expressed by a single word.

EXAMPLES.—*Go, went.* (448, 449.)

Frequently an auxiliary verb and a present infinitive or a present participle are used to express the present and the past tense ; as, *do go, is going, can go, may be going, ought to go, did go, was going.*

425. *Have (has)* and *had* are the signs of the perfect tenses. They are combined with a *perfect participle*.

EXAMPLES.—*Have gone, has gone, had gone, shall have gone, may have gone, have been going.* (448, 449.)

426. *Shall* and *will* are the signs of the future tenses. They are combined with a *present infinitive*.

EXAMPLES.—*Shall go, will go, shall have gone, will have gone, shall be going.* (448, 449.)

427. A verb in the **present tense** generally represents a present act or state.

EXAMPLES.—“*I go.*” “*They are married.*” “*He is going.*”

428. A verb in the **present-perfect tense** generally represents an act or state as completed in present time or connected with it.

EXAMPLES.—“*I have gone.*” “*They have been married a year.*”

Are come, are gone, etc., are in the present-perfect tense.

429. A verb in the **past tense** generally represents a past act or state.

EXAMPLES.—“*I studied my lesson.*” “*They were married last year.*”

430. A verb in the **past-perfect tense** generally represents an act or state as completed in past time.

EXAMPLES.—“*I had studied my lesson before the bell rang.*” “*They had been married three years before he died.*”

431. A verb in the **future tense** generally represents a future act or state.

EXAMPLES.—“*I shall study.*” “*They will be married.*”

432. A verb in the *future-perfect tense* generally represents an act or state as completed in future time.

EXAMPLES.—“I *shall have studied* my lesson before the bell rings.”
“They *will have been married* two years before I see them.”

The foregoing remarks state in a general way the uses of the tenses. As they differ greatly in their use in the different moods, they should be defined in connection with the moods with which they are used.

433. Care must be taken to use the tenses properly. Remember that—

1. General truths and present facts should be expressed in the *present tense*.

EXAMPLES.—“He said that the earth *is* (not *was*) round.” “I *think* it *is* late;” not “I *should think* it *was* late.”

2. The perfect participle should not be used for the *past indicative*, nor the past indicative for the *perfect participle*.

EXAMPLES.—“I *did* it;” not “I *done* it.” “I *have seen* him;” not “I *have saw* him.”

434. Number and Form of the Tenses of the Different Moods.

	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Pr.-Perf.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past-Perf.</i>	<i>Future.</i>	<i>Fut.-Perf.</i>
<i>Ind.</i>	Do,	have done,	did,	had done.	shall do,	shall have done.
<i>Subj.</i>	Do,	_____	did,	had done.	_____	_____
<i>Pot.</i>	May do,	may have done,	might do,	might have done.	_____	_____
<i>Imp.</i>	Do.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
<i>Inf.</i>	To do,	to have done.	_____	_____	_____	_____
<i>Part.</i>	Doing,	having done.	_____	_____	_____	_____

QUESTIONS.—How many tenses has each mood? What are they? How are they formed? In how many moods is each tense found? What is the sign of the present-perfect tense? Of the past-perfect? Of the future-perfect? Of the future tenses? Of the perfect tenses? Which tenses contain the perfect participle? Which contain the present infinitive?

435. The indicative mood has *six tenses*; the subjunctive, *three*; the potential, *four*; the imperative, *one*; the infinitive, *two*; and the participial, *two*.

For the names of the tenses of each mood, see table, 434.

EXERCISES.

436. Write a table like the foregoing (434), with the verb "love." "Try." "Raise." "Rise." "Lie" (to recline). "Lay." "Set." "Sit." "Catch," in the passive voice. "Love," in the passive voice. "Forget," in the passive voice.

437. In what tense is each of the following verbs?

Run, come, did, shall go, might have gone, were, had been, am, singing, was punished, to go, marching, try, have been made, lie, have sat, lay, undergo, to be rewarded, loved, being rewarded, considered, would try, will have been sold, having purchased, be, can be, must have heard, to have been killed, could produce, ought to repent, shall be found, flew, are fighting, to have gone, beware.

438. Correct the following errors:

1. I done it. 2. They have went. 3. We seen him. 4. She drunk the coffee. 5. Has he came? 6. He come yesterday. 7. How tall you've growed! 8. He has gone yesterday. 9. I have got no párents. 10. Would you lend me a dollar, please?

Forms of the Tenses.

Remark.—Each tense may be expressed in different ways, called *forms*; as, "He *studies*." "He *does study*." "He *is studying*." "The lesson *is studied*."

The verb *studies* is in the *common form*. *Does study* expresses emphasis, and is in the *emphatic form*. *Is studying* represents the act as continuing, and is in the *progressive form*. *Is studied* is used to express the passive voice, and is called the *passive form*.

(a) The **Forms** of a tense are the different ways in which it can be expressed.

(b) The **Common Form** is the simplest form of the verb; as, *study*; *strike*; *go*.

(c) The **Emphatic Form** expresses emphasis. It is made by using the auxiliary *do* or *did* as a part of the verb; as, *do study*; *did strike*; *do go*.

Do and *did* do not make interrogative or negative propositions emphatic.

(d) The **Progressive Form** represents the act or state as continuing. It is made by combining the verb *be* (or some variation of it) with the present participle; as, *am studying*; *was striking*; *are going*; *is being done*.

When the object is merely to express an act, and not to point out the fact of its continuing, this form should not be used.

"The house *is building*," "Our chains *are forging*" (*Wirt*), are correct passive-progressive forms. Of late the following forms are taking their place in the present and the past tense: "The house *is being built*," "Our chains *are being forged*." Cf. "The missionary *is eating*"; "*is being eaten*."

(e) Unchangeable truths should not be expressed in the progressive form.

QUESTIONS.—*What is the difference between "He studies" and "He is studying"?* *May we say, "I am remembering the circumstance"?* "*Heat is expanding all metals*"? *Why not?*

(f) The **Passive Form** is the form used to express the passive voice. It is made by combining the verb *be* (or some variation of it) with the perfect participle; as, *is studied*; *have been struck*; *are done*. (404.)

Person and Number.

Inductive Lesson.—1. She believes that I am brave. 2. I believe that he is brave. 3. He studies. 4. They study. 5. We are brave.

QUESTIONS.—*What is the subject of "believes"?* *In what person is it?* *Of "believe"?* *In what person is it?* *In what person is the subject of "am"?* *"Is"?* *Do these verbs change their form to agree with the person of their subjects?*

What is the subject of "studies"? *In what number is it?* *Of "study"?* *In what number is it?* *In what number is the subject of "am"?* *"Are"?* *Do these verbs change their form to agree with the number of their subject?*

Are the foregoing verbs finite, or non-finite? *Do non-finite verbs change their form to agree with the person and number of their subjects?*

439. The **Person** and **Number** of a finite verb are variations in its form to agree with the person and number of its subject.

That is, good usage requires finite verbs to be in a certain form to suit the person and number of their subjects. It follows that, like their subjects, they have three persons and two numbers.

(a) All verbs except *be* have the same form in the plural number as in the first person singular; as, I *see* (thou *seest*; he *sees*); we *see*; you *see*; they *see*.

(b) In the common style, all verbs except *be* have the same form in the second person singular as in the first; as, I *see*; you *see*.

(c) In the old or solemn style (281 *d*), the verb or the first auxiliary ends with *est* or *et* in the second person singular, and with *eth* or *th* in the third person singular; as, thou *seest*; he *seeth*.

Methinks, meseems, etc., are used in the third person only, hence they are called *unipersonal verbs*. In "*Methinks the lady doth protest too much*," the clause in italics is the subject.

As a non-finite verb does not change its form to agree with its subject in person and number, it does not have person and number.

Rules of Construction.

440. Rule 13. A finite verb agrees with its subject in person and number. (390.)

(a) **Special Rule 8.** A finite verb having two or more subjects joined by "and" and differing in person, prefers the **first person** to the second, and the **second** to the third; as, "*You and I are censured.*" (*You and I = we.*) "*Francis, you and Joshua must go.*" (*You [s.] and Joshua = you [p.]*)

(b) **Special Rule 9.** A finite verb having two or more subjects joined by "or" or "nor," agrees with the subject next the verb in **person and number**; as, "*You or Mary must go.*"

This construction should not be used if the subjects differ in person and the verb has a different form for each person. Thus, "*Either you or he is wrong,*" should be "*Either you are wrong, or he is.*" It is sometimes used when the subjects differ in number only; as, "*The king or his advisers were opposed to that course*; while neither the *prince* nor his *friends were prepared to defend it.*"—*Hume*. In such sentences the plural subject is placed next the verb.

(c) **Special Rule 10.** A finite verb having two or more subjects joined by "and" and not modified by "no," "each," "every," or a similar adjective, is in the **plural number** if they represent different persons or things; as, "*Anna and Rose are here.*"

(d) **Special Rule 11.** A finite verb having two or more singular subjects representing the same person or thing, or modified by

"no," "each," "every," or a similar adjective, is in the **singular number**; as, "Yonder *lives a statesman and soldier.*" "Every *man, woman, and child, was killed.*"—*Burke.*

441. Rule 14. A non-finite verb does not change its form to agree with its subject in **person** and **number**. (391.)

EXERCISES.

442. *Mention the subjects of the following verbs, and their person and number, when finite :*

1. Every man and woman stood motionless, watching the receding boat. 2. I see that thou art poor. 3. It were lost sorrow to wail one that's lost.—*Shak.* 4. Here comes my friend and teacher. 5. You or your friends must go at once, or he and I will.

443. *Correct the following errors :*

1. His riches is great. 2. The phenomena was surprising. 3. Where was you yesterday? 4. The news were received. 5. The summons were given.

"Shall" and "Will."

444. When no determination is expressed, *shall* is used in the first person, and *will* in the second and third.

EXAMPLES.—"I think I *shall go.*" "Will you *go ?*" "Mary *will go.*" "We *shall go.*"

445. When a determination is expressed, *will* is used if the determination and the act refer to the same person, and *shall* if they refer to different persons.

EXAMPLES.—"I **WILL go.**" "He **WILL go.**" (He determines to go.) "He **SHALL go.**" (I determine that he is to go.) "*Shall they go ?*"

"Should" and "Would."

446. *Should* usually expresses duty or obligation, and *would* determination or inclination. When used otherwise, *should* is generally in the first person, and *would* in the second or third.

EXAMPLES.—“I *should like* to see him.” “If he were to go, he *would be pleased*.”

In conditional clauses, *should* is generally used ; as, “If he *should go*, he would be pleased.”

The rules stated in 444, 445, and 446 have but few exceptions. Let these rules be committed to memory, and applied in sentences like the examples. (455, 456.)

Conjugation.

447. Conjugation is a variation in the form of a verb to express *voice, mood, tense, person, and number*.

(a) The **Synopsis** of a verb shows what forms it has to express its grammatical properties in a single person and number.

448. Conjugation of the Verb “Be.”

Principal Parts.

<i>Pres. Ind.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Pres. Part.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>Pres. Inf.</i>
Be or am,	was,	being,	been,	Be or to be.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR NUMBER.	PLURAL NUMBER.
<i>First person</i> , (I) am,	1. (We) are,
<i>Second person</i> , (You) are, or (Thou) art,	2. (You) are,
<i>Third person</i> , (He) is ;	3. (They) are.

Present-Perfect Tense.

Have, combined with the perfect participle.

1. (I) have been,	1. (We) have been,
2. (You) have been, or (Thou) hast been,	2. (You) have been,
3. (He) has been ;	3. (They) have been.

Past Tense.

1. (I) was,	1. (We) were,
2. (You) were, or (Thou) wast,	2. (You) were,
3. (He) was ;	3. (They) were.

Past-Perfect Tense.

Had, combined with the perfect participle.

1. (I) had been,	1. (We) had been,
2. (You) had been, or (Thou) hadst been,	2. (You) had been,
3. (He) had been ;	3. (They) had been.

Future Tense.*Shall or will*, combined with the present infinitive.

Simple futurity ; foretelling. (444.)

SINGULAR NUMBER.

1. (I) shall be,
2. (You) will be, *or* (Thou) wilt be,
3. (He) will be ;

PLURAL NUMBER.

1. (We) shall be,
2. (You) will be,
3. (They) will be.

Promise, threat, or determination. (445.)

1. (I) will be,
2. (You) shall be, *or* (Thou) shalt be,
3. (He) shall be ;

1. (We) will be,
2. (You) shall be,
3. (They) shall be.

Future-Perfect Tense.*Shall or will*, combined with the present infinitive *have* and the perfect participle.

- | | |
|---|---------------------------|
| 1. (I) shall have been, | 1. (We) shall have been, |
| 2. (You) will have been, <i>or</i> (Thou) wilt have been, | 2. (You) will have been, |
| 3. (He) will have been ; | 3. (They) will have been. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.**Present Tense.**

- | | |
|---|------------------|
| 1. (If I) be, | 1. (If we) be, |
| 2. (If you) be, <i>or</i> (If thou) be, | 2. (If you) be, |
| 3. (If he) be ; | 3. (If they) be. |

Past Tense.

- | | |
|---|--------------------|
| 1. (If I) were, | 1. (If we) were, |
| 2. (If you) were, <i>or</i> (If thou) were, | 2. (If you) were, |
| 3. (If he) were ; | 3. (If they) were. |

Past-Perfect Tense.*Had*, combined with the perfect participle.

- | | |
|---|------------------------|
| 1. (If I) had been, | 1. (If we) had been, |
| 2. (If you) had been, <i>or</i> (If thou) had been, | 2. (If you) had been, |
| 3. (If he) had been ; | 3. (If they) had been. |

POTENTIAL MOOD.**Present Tense.***May, can, or must*, combined with the present infinitive.

- | | |
|---|-------------------|
| 1. (I) may be, | 1. (We) may be, |
| 2. (You) may be, <i>or</i> (Thou) mayst be, | 2. (You) may be, |
| 3. (He) may be ; | 3. (They) may be. |

Ought is combined with the present infinitive, as follows :

- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------|
| 1. (I) ought to be, | 1. (We) ought to be, |
| 2. (You) ought to be, | 2. (You) ought to be, |
| 3. (He) ought to be ; | 3. (They) ought to be. |

Present-Perfect Tense.

May, can, or must, combined with the present infinitive *have* and the perfect participle.

SINGULAR NUMBER.

PLURAL NUMBER.

- | | |
|---|--------------------------|
| 1. (I) may have been, | 1. (We) may have been, |
| 2. (You) may have been, <i>or</i> (Thou) mayst have been, | 2. (You) may have been, |
| 3. (He) may have been ; | 3. (They) may have been. |

Past Tense.

Might, could, would, or should, combined with the present infinitive.

- | | |
|---|---------------------|
| 1. (I) might be, | 1. (We) might be, |
| 2. (You) might be, <i>or</i> (Thou) mightst be, | 2. (You) might be, |
| 3. (He) might be ; | 3. (They) might be. |

Past-Perfect Tense.

Might, could, would, or should, combined with the present infinitive *have* and the perfect participle.

- | | |
|---|----------------------------|
| 1. (I) might have been, | 1. (We) might have been, |
| 2. (You) might have been, <i>or</i> (Thou) mightst have been, | 2. (You) might have been, |
| 3. (He) might have been ; | 3. (They) might have been. |

Ought is combined with the present infinitive *to have* and the perfect participle.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 2. Be (you), <i>or</i> Do (you) be ; | 2. Be (you), <i>or</i> Do (you) be. |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

(I, you, he, we, *or* they) to be *or* be.

Present-Perfect Tense.

(I, you, he, we, *or* they) to have been *or* have been.

Or we may say (*me, him, us, or them*) to be, etc.

PARTICIPIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

(I, you, he, we, *or* they) being.

Present-Perfect Tense.

(I, you, he, we, *or* they) having been.

To conjugate a verb in the *passive voice*, add the *perfect participle* of the verb to the conjugation of the verb *be* (404), thus :

- | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. (I) am <i>seen</i> , | 1. (We) are <i>seen</i> , |
| 2. (You) are <i>seen</i> , | 2. (You) are <i>seen</i> , |
| 3. (He) is <i>seen</i> ; | 3. (They) are <i>seen</i> , etc. |

To conjugate a verb in the *progressive form* (438 *d*), add the *present participle* of the verb to the conjugation of the verb *be*, thus :

- | | |
|------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. (I) am <i>seeing</i> , | 1. (We) are <i>seeing</i> , |
| 2. (You) are <i>seeing</i> , | 2. (You) are <i>seeing</i> , |
| 3. (He) is <i>seeing</i> ; | 3. (They) are <i>seeing</i> , etc. |

(a) Synopsis of the Verb "Be," with "Thou" as its Subject.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present tense,</i>	(Thou) art.
<i>Present-perfect tense,</i>	(Thou) hast been.
<i>Past tense,</i>	(Thou) wast.
<i>Past-perfect tense,</i>	(Thou) hadst been.
<i>Future tense,</i>	(Thou) shalt or wilt be.
<i>Future-perfect tense,</i>	(Thou) wilt have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

<i>Present tense,</i>	(If thou) be.
<i>Past tense,</i>	(If thou) were.
<i>Past-perfect tense,</i>	(If thou) had been.

"If thou wert," and "If thou hadst been," are also sometimes used by good writers.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

<i>Present tense,</i>	(Thou) mayst, canst, or must be.
<i>Present-perfect tense,</i>	(Thou) mayst, canst, or must have been.
<i>Past tense,</i>	(Thou) mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be.
<i>Past-perfect tense,</i>	(Thou) mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have been.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present tense,</i>	Be (thou), or Do (thou) be.
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INFINITIVE MOOD.

<i>Present tense,</i>	(Thou) to be, or (Thee) to be.
<i>Present-perfect tense,</i>	(Thou) to have been, or (Thee) to have been.

PARTICIPIAL MOOD.

<i>Present tense,</i>	(Thou) being.
<i>Present-perfect tense,</i>	(Thou) having been.

EXERCISE.

(b) Write a synopsis of "be," with "James" as its subject. With "they."

449. Conjugation of the Verb "See."

Principal Parts.

<i>Pres. Ind.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Pres. Part.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>Pres. Inf.</i>
See,	saw,	seeing,	seen,	to see.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.—Common Form.

SINGULAR NUMBER.

1. (I) see,
2. (You) see,
3. (He) sees;

PLURAL NUMBER.

1. (We) see,
2. (You) see,
3. (They) see.

Present Tense.—Emphatic Form.

1. (I) do see,
2. (You) do see,
3. (He) does see;

1. (We) do see,
2. (You) do see,
3. (They) do see.

Present-Perfect Tense.

1. (I) have seen,
2. (You) have seen,
3. (He) has seen;

1. (We) have seen,
2. (You) have seen,
3. (They) have seen.

Past Tense.—Common Form.

1. (I) saw,
2. (You) saw,
3. (He) saw;

1. (We) saw,
2. (You) saw,
3. (They) saw.

Past Tense.—Emphatic Form.

1. (I) did see,
2. (You) did see,
3. (He) did see;

1. (We) did see,
2. (You) did see,
3. (They) did see.

Past-Perfect Tense.

1. (I) had seen,
2. (You) had seen,
3. (He) had seen;

1. (We) had seen,
2. (You) had seen,
3. (They) had seen.

Future Tense.

Simple futurity; foretelling. (444.)

1. (I) shall see,
2. (You) will see,
3. (He) will see;

1. (We) shall see,
2. (You) will see,
3. (They) will see.

Promise, threat, or determination. (445.)

1. (I) will see,
2. (You) shall see,
3. (He) shall see;

1. (We) will see,
2. (You) shall see,
3. (They) shall see.

Future-Perfect Tense.

1. (I) shall have seen,
2. (You) will have seen,
3. (He) will have seen;

1. (We) shall have seen,
2. (You) will have seen,
3. (They) will have seen.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. (If I) see,
2. (If you) see,
3. (If he) see;

1. (If we) see,
2. (If you) see,
3. (If they) see,

Present Tense.—Emphatic Form.**SINGULAR NUMBER.**

1. (If I) do see,
2. (If you) do see,
3. (If he) do see ;

PLURAL NUMBER.

1. (If we) do see,
2. (If you) do see.
3. (If they) do see.

Past Tense.

1. (If I) saw,
2. (If you) saw,
3. (If he) saw ;

1. (If we) saw,
2. (If you) saw,
3. (If they) saw.

Past Tense.—Emphatic Form.

1. (If I) did see,
2. (If you) did see,
3. (If he) did see ;

1. (If we) did see,
2. (If you) did see,
3. (If they) did see.

Past-Perfect Tense.

1. (If I) had seen,
2. (If you) had seen,
3. (If he) had seen ;

1. (If we) had seen,
2. (If you) had seen,
3. (If they) had seen.

POTENTIAL MOOD.**Present Tense.**

1. (I) may see,
2. (You) may see,
3. (He) may see ;

1. (We) may see,
2. (You) may see,
3. (They) may see.

Present-Perfect Tense.

1. (I) may have seen,
2. (You) may have seen,
3. (He) may have seen ;

1. (We) may have seen,
2. (You) may have seen,
3. (They) may have seen.

Past Tense.

1. (I) might see,
2. (You) might see,
3. (He) might see ;

1. (We) might see,
2. (You) might see,
3. (They) might see.

Past-Perfect Tense.

1. (I) might have seen,
2. (You) might have seen,
3. (He) might have seen ;

1. (We) might have seen,
2. (You) might have seen,
3. (They) might have seen.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.**Present Tense.**

2. See (you).

2. See (you).

INFINITIVE MOOD.**Present Tense.**

I (or me), you, he (or him), we (or us), they (or them) to see.

Present-Perfect Tense.

I (or me), you, he (or him), we (or us), they (or them) to have seen.

PARTICIPIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

(I, you, he, we, or they) seeing.

Present-Perfect Tense.

(I, you, he, we, or they) having seen.

EXERCISES.

450. Conjugate the verbs "love," "teach," "carry," "try," and "row."

451. State the mood and tense of the following verbs, and then conjugate them throughout the tense :

I came. It may stop. Art thou ? I shall try. They are coming. If she study. You must repent. We might have gone. He should have been studying. Had I gone. They were punished. If thou wert.

(a) Write each of the following verbs in all the forms of the tense to which it belongs :

I study. They returned the book. It may rain. Has he brought the book ? The bird is flying.

(b) Write a synopsis of the following verbs, in each tense of all the moods :

Love, with I as its subject. See, with Mary as its subject. Is transferred, with the trunk as its subject. Are coming, with we as its subject.

(c) Conjugate the verbs "strike," "love," and "teach," in the passive voice (448, note). The verbs "study," "row," and "sing," in the progressive form (448, note). The verb "go" interrogatively in the common form. The verb "sing" negatively in the progressive form.

PARSING.

452. FORMS OF PARSING.—WRITTEN PARSING.

1. They sin who tell us Love can die.—Southey.

<u>r i f o</u>	<u>i t f o</u>	<u>r i f o</u>
ind	a	pot
pr	ind	pr
they	pr	Love
s	who	s
p	s	s
	p	

ORAL PARSING.

Tell is an irregular, transitive, finite verb, in the active voice, indicative mood, and present tense. Its subject is *who*, hence it is in the third person and plural number.

WRITTEN PARSING.

2. *The enemy advancing, he ordered the signal to be given.*

<i>r i n v</i>	<i>r t f v</i>	<i>i t n v</i>
<i>par</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>pr</i>	<i>ind</i>	<i>inf</i>
<i>enemy</i>	<i>pa</i>	<i>pr</i>
	<i>he</i>	<i>signal</i>
	<i>s</i>	
	<i>s</i>	

ORAL PARSING.

Advancing is a regular, intransitive, non-finite verb, in the participial mood, and present tense. Its subject is *enemy*, but it does not change its form to agree with *enemy* in person and number.

To be given is an irregular, transitive, non-finite verb, in the passive voice, infinitive mood, and present tense. Its subject is *signal*, but it does not change its form to agree with *signal* in person and number.

EXERCISE.

453. *Parse the finite verbs in 396 and 420. The finite and non-finite verbs in 392 and 405.*

LANGUAGE TABLES.

454. *Read the following tables aloud every day, until you become accustomed to hearing and using the correct forms. Add "it" when the verb is transitive:*

I go,	I run, ¹	I write it,	If we be, etc.
I went,	I ring it,	I drink.	—
I have gone,	I see it,	—	If I were,
I had gone.	I speak,	If I be,	If you were,
—	I eat it,	If you be,	If he were,
I begin, ¹ etc.	I know it,	If he be,	If they were, etc.

1. Use *begin, run, etc.*, in the same tenses as *go*.

455. *Read the following, without emphasizing the auxiliaries:*

I shall go,	We shall go,	I shall begin, ¹	I shall see it,
You will go,	You will go,	I shall run, ¹	I shall speak,
He will go;	They will go.	I shall ring it,	I shall eat it, etc.

1. Use *begin, run, etc.*, in the same persons and numbers as *shall go*.

456. Emphasize the auxiliaries:

I will go, We will go, I will begin,¹ I will see it,
 You shall go, You shall go, I will run,¹ I will speak,
 He shall go; They shall go. I will ring it, I will eat it, etc.

1. Use *begin*, *run*, etc., in the same persons and numbers as *will go*. Select other verbs, if necessary.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

(a) **Analyze the following sentences, and parse the nouns, pronouns, and verbs in them:**

1. Hallowed be¹ Thy name. 2. Yonder lives² a soldier and statesman. 3. Whom do you think them to be? 4. Who are they³ thought to be? 5. You or I must go.⁴ 6. If love be rough with you, be rough with love.—*Shak.* 7. The saint, the father, and the husband prays.—*Burns.* 8. It is not easy for⁵ one to forgive his enemies. 9. This done, we left. 10. Was it snowing I spoke of?—*Holmes.* 11. Experience teaches that heavy bodies fall if they are unsupported.

12. Who⁶ doeth right deeds

Is twice-born, and who doeth ill deeds vile.—*Arnold.*

13. It was during Mr. Fillmore's Administration that the Fugitive-slave Law was enacted. 14. Your deeds would make the statues of your ancestors blush upon their tombs.—*Longfellow.* 15. No place, no company, and no person is temptation-free.—*Shak.* 16. It is said that after Lycurgus had finished his code of laws, he went into voluntary exile. 17. Knowledge and timber should not be used until they are seasoned.—*Holmes.* 18. Zenobia would have ill deserved her reputation had she indolently permitted the Emperor of the West to approach within a hundred leagues of her capital.—*Gibbon.* 19. Go ye, therefore, and teach all nations, baptizing them in the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost.—*Matt. xxviii, 19.*

20. God pity them both, and pity us all,

Who vainly the dreams of youth recall.—*Whittier.*

1. 416 a. 2. Say, its subjects are *soldier* and *statesman*, nouns representing the same person, hence it is in the third person and singular number. 440 d. 3. *They*, with *to be*, is the subject of *thought*. 4. 440 b. 5. A prep., used as a sub. conj. 6. 277 a. Or, *who* is a conjunctive pronoun, and the clause it introduces is the subject of *is*.

ERRORS TO BE CORRECTED.

(b) *Two of the following sentences are correct. Correct the errors in the others.*

1. We was there.

ORAL CORRECTION.

This is incorrect. The subject of *was*, a verb in the singular number, is *we*, a pronoun in the plural number. Instead of *was*, *were* should be used, and the sentence should be, *We were there*.

WRITTEN CORRECTION.

We was there.
~~was~~
were

WRITTEN CORRECTIONS.

2. If I was him I would go.
~~was~~ ~~he~~
I I

3. You had n't ought to go.
~~ought~~ ~~not~~

4. Lay down and rest. 5. Demosthenes, as well as Cicero, were eloquent. 6. The charges is n't proven. 7. The streets is narrow in China. 8. The wages of sin is death. 9. Here's the scissors. 10. Who done it? 11. Has the bell rang? 12. I have often saw that. 13. She sets next him. 14. How is your fater and mother? 15. I ought to have went. 16. Fetch me my knife. 17. I used to could do it. 18. He was heard say that the man hung himself. 19. How fine the oats is! 20. His text was "God was love." 21. Pharaoh with all his host were drown'd. 22. Says I to myself, "He done it." 23. John will earn his wages when his work is finished. 24. It is me who is to go. 25. *Horses* are in the plural number. 26. Every kind of comfort and convenience are provided. 27. A page and a half has been added. 28. Each day and each hour bring their portion of duty. 29. Ethics is the science of human rights and duties. 30. Neither riches nor fame render a man happy.

457. Review the remarks and exercises that are numbered.

ADJECTIVES.

458. An **Adjective** is a word used to modify a noun or a pronoun without representing an object.

(a) Words from other parts of speech are frequently used as adjectives ; as, "An *iron* post." "A *gold* ring." "*California* gold." "Washington's *farewell* address." "*County* offices." "A great *many* men."

See 191 and 203.

In a compound adjective consisting of a numeral and a noun, the noun retains its singular form ; as, "A *ten-foot* pole." "A *twofold* use."

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

Inductive Lesson.—1. Old men walk slowly. 2. That book is mine. 3. Do you see those beautiful flowers ? 4. Three little boys. 5. Large ripe apples. 6. Some money.

QUESTIONS.—*What word modifies the noun "men," in the first sentence ? Does it describe the men ? What adjective modifies the noun "book," in the second sentence ? Does "that" tell what kind of book is referred to ? Does it describe the book ? In the third sentence, which word modifies the noun "flowers" by describing the flowers ? Which word modifies the noun without describing the flowers ? What is the difference between "three" and "little" ? Which one is descriptive ? Which one merely defines or limits ?*

The adjective *old* modifies the noun *men* by describing the persons represented by it ; and it is called a *descriptive adjective*. The adjective *that* modifies the noun *book* without describing the object represented by it ; and it is called a *definitive adjective*.

QUESTIONS.—*Can you point out any other descriptive adjectives in the foregoing sentences ? Any other definitive adjectives ?*

459. Adjectives are divided into two chief classes : *Descriptive Adjectives* and *Definitive Adjectives*.

460. A **Descriptive Adjective** is an adjective that modifies a noun or a pronoun by describing the person or thing represented by it.

EXAMPLES.—"Greenland's *icy* mountains." "Her hands are *cold*."
"Those *heavy* yards were swung by fifty *strong* arms."

461. A **Definitive Adjective** is an adjective that modifies a noun or a pronoun without describing the person or thing represented by it.

EXAMPLES.—“*An old man.*” “*No one.*” “*Those heavy yards were swung by fifty strong arms.*” “*The others have gone.*”

462. Descriptive adjectives include, as a small part of their number—

1. Proper adjectives, or adjectives derived from proper nouns.

EXAMPLES.—“*The American flag.*” “*French literature.*” “*The Elizabethan age.*” (273.)

2. Participial adjectives, or participles used wholly as descriptive adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—“*Twinkling stars.*” “*Forgotten joys.*”

Adjectives formed by prefixing *un* to participial adjectives, are called participial adjectives by some grammarians; as, “*Be Yarrow’s stream unseen, unknown.*”—*Wordsworth.* “*An unforgiving disposition.*” “*Unforgotten joys.*”

463. Definitive adjectives include, as a large part of their number—

1. Pronominal adjectives, or words that are used as definitive adjectives, and may be used as pronouns.

EXAMPLES.—“*This hearth is our own.*” “*Both men were hurt.*” (290.)

2. Numeral adjectives, or adjectives that express number.

EXAMPLES.—*One* book; the *first* man; a *double* team.

Some numeral adjectives are compound words; as, *twenty-five* years; *one hundred and sixty-eight* dollars.

3. Interrogative adjectives, or adjectives used to ask questions.

EXAMPLES.—“*Which one shall I bring?*” “*What implements are needed?*”

4. Conjunctive adjectives, or adjectives used to introduce clauses and join them to the words that the clauses modify.

EXAMPLES.—“*Ascertain which book he wishes.*” “*I can not see what flowers are at my feet.*” (198.)

464. The interrogative adjectives are *which* and *what*. The conjunctive adjectives are *which* and *what*, with their compounds *whichever*, *whichever*, *whatever*, and *whatsoever*.

The adjective *what* is sometimes used in exclamation, and it may then be called an *exclamatory definitive adjective*; as, "*What a boy!*" "*What wonders do I see!*"

"The" and "A" or "An."

(a) The adjective *the* is used to show that a particular object or class of objects is referred to; as, "*The man has gone.*" "*The horse is a noble animal.*"

"*The man.*" A particular man, thought of apart from the class *men*.
 "*The horse.*" A particular class, thought of apart from other classes.

(b) *The* may be used before singular and plural nouns; as, "*The man.*" "*The men.*" "*The Atlantic.*" "*The Joneses.*" "*The Cicero of his age.*"

In such constructions as "*The steamer Fulton went up the Hudson river,*" *the* modifies the common noun. When the common noun is omitted, as in "*The Fulton went up the Hudson,*" *the* modifies the proper noun.

(c) The adjective *a* or *an* is used to show that no particular object or class of objects is referred to; as, "*A man.*" "*An old house.*" "*A second Daniel.*"

"*A man*" denotes one of a class, not thought of apart from the class.

(d) *A* should be used when the next word begins with a consonant-sound, and *an* when it begins with a vowel-sound; as, "*A man.*" "*A union.*" "*A blind old man.*" "*An art.*" "*An hour.*" "*An old man.*"

QUESTION.—*Which is correct, "A humble home" or "An humble home"?*

(e) *An* is also frequently used before *h* faintly sounded, when the second syllable has the chief accent; as, "*An heroic deed.*" "*An hexameter.*"

Some critics condemn this use of *an* as un-American, preferring "*A heroic deed,*" "*A hexameter.*"

(f) *A* or *an* is used before nouns in the singular number only; as, "*A man.*" "*An ox.*"

Expressions like "*A dozen apples*," "*A hundred men*," are no exception to this rule. In "*A dozen apples*," *dozen* is a noun used as an adjective. As a noun, it is modified by *a*; and as an adjective, it modifies *apples*. So also, "*A hundred men*," etc. In "*A few hours*," "*A great many persons*," *few* and *many* are pronouns used as adjectives. As a pronoun, *many* is modified by *a* and *great*, adjectives. As an adjective, it modifies *persons*.

Or, *hundred* and *dozen* are nouns, and the nouns following them are in apposition with them. In A.-S. they were followed by the genitive case, as if we said, "*A hundred of men*," etc. (Cf. "*A score of men*.") So also the pronouns *few* and *many*.

(g) *A* or *an* should not be repeated before the second term of a comparison when both terms refer to the same person or thing; as, "*He is a better scholar than teacher*."

(h) *The*, or *a* or *an*, should be used only once before two or more adjectives modifying the same noun, and repeated before each of two or more adjectives modifying different nouns; as, "*A red, white, and blue flag*" (one flag). "*An arbitrary and conventional language*" (one language). "*A red, a white, and a blue flag*" (three flags).

(i) *The* and *a* or *an* are usually omitted—

1. Before common nouns referring to the kind generally, or to a part indefinitely; as, "*Platinum is heavier than gold*." "*Man is mortal*." "*Goodness is better than wealth*." "*Ostriches have wings*."

2. Before a word used merely as a title; as, "*He received the title of captain*."

3. Before a word used merely as a word; as, "*Truly is an adverb*." "*Acorn is from ac, oak, and corn, grain*."

The and *a* or *an* are called, by many grammarians, articles. Abbott says of this term, "*A name . . . foolishly introduced into English, and once used to denote the and a*."

(j) Other Definitive Adjectives.

All is opposed to *none* and to *some*. It denotes either number or quantity. "*All men*." "*All the world*." Both, two. *Certain*, a small select number. (*Certain*, meaning *sure*, is a descriptive adjective.) *Divers*, many different. *Each*, two or more considered separately. *Else*, besides. "*Somebody else*." *Every*, all considered separately. *Few* is opposed to *many*; *a few*, to *none*. *Little*, not much. (*Little*, meaning *small*, is a des. adj.) *Many a*, many considered separately. *Own*, possession with emphasis. *Sundry*, more

than one or two. **Very**, the same emphatically. **What**, interrogative, conjunctive, or exclamatory. **Which**, interrogative or conjunctive. **Yon**,¹ **yonder**, at a distance, within view.

1. *Yon* is obsolete, except in poetry.

EXERCISES.

465. *Which of the following adjectives are descriptive, and which definitive? Which are pronominal? Which numeral? Which may be used as interrogative adjectives? Which as conjunctive adjectives?*

Two, ugly, those, no, the, beautiful, rising, soft, own, a, third, lovely, each, an, which, twenty-ninth, deep, better, much, forever, true, what, sundry, all, learned, single, whole.

(a) *Correct the following errors:*

1. An union ; a old man ; an hundred men ; such an one.
2. A heir ; an hair.
3. A white and a black pig was lost.
4. A white and black pig were lost.
5. The first and second sentence ; the first and the second sentences ; the Old and New Testament.
6. What kind of a book is that ?
7. Is a woman a man's equal ?
8. Tennyson received the title of a lord.
9. His abilities are so great that a few excel him.
10. The truth, crushed to earth, shall rise again.

Comparison.

Inductive Lesson.—1. Mr. Smith is strong. 2. Mr. Brown is stronger than Mr. Smith. 3. Mr. Jones is the strongest of the three. 4. A good boy ; a more beautiful girl ; the best actions. 5. Old, older, oldest. Cheerful, more cheerful, most cheerful. 6. Wise, less wise, least wise. Cheerful, less cheerful, least cheerful.

QUESTIONS.—*What quality of the three men is compared? Which man is said to possess the quality of strength in a higher degree than Mr. Smith? Which possesses it in the highest degree?*

The adjective *strong* expresses the quality of strength in different degrees ; and it is said to have the property of *comparison*.

Strong is said to be in the *positive degree* ; *stronger*, in the *comparative degree* ; and *strongest*, in the *superlative degree*.

QUESTION.—*Can you give the degree of comparison of each of the foregoing adjectives?*

466. Comparison is a variation in the use and form of an adjective (or an adverb) to express quality in different degrees.

EXAMPLE.—“If fun is *good*, truth is *better*, and love *best* of all.”—*Thackeray*.

467. There are three degrees of comparison : the *positive*, the *comparative*, and the *superlative*.

468. An adjective used to express the quality simply, is in the **positive degree**.

EXAMPLES.—*Happy* children ; *agreeable* companions ; *few* pleasures. “The day is *cold*.”

469. An adjective used to express the quality in a higher or a lower degree, is in the **comparative degree**.

EXAMPLES.—*Happier* children ; *less happy* children ; *more agreeable* companions ; *less agreeable* companions ; *fewer* pleasures. “The night is *colder* than the day.”

(a) The comparative degree should be used when *two* objects or conditions are compared ; as, “Rhode Island is *smaller* than Delaware.” “A nation is *happier* in peace than in war.” “Texas is *larger* than any other State in the Union.” (Texas is compared with one State after another.)

“But the rule [469 a] is not strictly adhered to. Writers and speakers continually use the superlative degree in comparing two things : ‘the best of two,’ ‘the least of two.’”—*Bain*.

(b) When the comparative degree is followed by *than*, the word *other* should be placed before the second term to exclude the object represented by the first term, if it belongs to the class named by the second term ; as, “*Socrates* was wiser than the *other Athenians*.”

But we may say, “Mexico is larger than any State in the Union.” “Was Aristotle wiser than Plato?”

470. An adjective used to express the quality in the highest or the lowest degree, is in the **superlative degree**.

EXAMPLES.—The *happiest* children ; the *least happy* children ; the *most agreeable* companions ; the *least agreeable* companions ; the *fewest* pleasures. “Winter is the *coldest* season of the year.”

(a) The superlative degree should be used when *three or more* objects or conditions are compared ; as, "Rhode Island is the *smallest* State in the Union." "A nation is *happiest* in peace."

(b) In using the superlative degree, the object represented by the first term should be included in the class named by the second term ; as, "*Socrates* was the wisest of the *Athenians*."

(c) Double comparatives and superlatives should be avoided. Thus, "The *most unkindest* act of all," "The *most boldest*," should be, "The *unkindest* act of all," "The *boldest*," etc.

"Double comparatives and superlatives are common in the older writers, as 'worse,' 'more braver,' 'the most unkindest cut of all' (*Shak.*) ; 'the most straitest sect,' etc."—*Mason*.

(d) An adjective expressing a quality that can not exist in different degrees, should not be compared. Among adjectives of this class are—

Almighty,	Empty,	Four-footed,	Naked,	Royal,
Certain,	Equal,	Full,	One,	Second,
Chief,	Eternal,	Golden,	Two,	Straight,
Circular,	Extreme,	Hollow,	Paternal,	Sincere,
Continual,	False,	Honest,	Perfect,	Supreme,
Dead,	Filial,	Infinite,	Perpetual,	Universal,
Deaf,	Fluid,	Living,	Right,	Void.

Some of the foregoing adjectives are compared when they are not taken in their full sense ; as, "Our sight is the *most perfect* of all our senses."—*Addison*. "The *most perfect* society."—*Emerson*. "An *emptier* name."—*Goldsmith*. "The *extremest* verge."—*Shakespeare*. "A *fuller* style."—*Whitney*.

(e) A few participial adjectives are compared ; as, "The *most learned* man." "The *most dazzling* sight." So also *exciting*, *thrilling*, *interesting*, etc.

(f) The positive is sometimes diminished by suffixing *ish*, or using *somewhat*, *rather*, *slightly*, etc. ; as, red, *reddish* ; *rather* old. It is sometimes greatly increased by using *very*, *exceedingly*, etc. ; as, *very* black ; *exceedingly* cold.

Rules for Expressing Comparison.

471. The *comparative degree* is regularly formed by adding *er* to the positive, or placing *more* or *less* before it.

EXAMPLES.—*Wiser* ; *more* beautiful ; *less* droll.

"The denoting of the comparison of adjectives, that is, the formation of the comparative and the superlative, happens in two modes, the one answering to the A.-S., the other to the Romance mode. The one is effected through derivational terminations, the other by the combination of the adverbs *more* and *most* with the positive."—*Maetzner*.

472. The *superlative degree* is regularly formed by adding *est* to the positive, or placing *most* or *least* before it.

EXAMPLES.—*Wisest*; *most* beautiful; *least* droll.

More, *most*, *less*, and *least*, when used in comparing adjectives or adverbs, should be regarded as parts of the words with which they are used. (268, 3.)

473. *Er* and *est* are added to monosyllables, and words of two syllables ending with *le*, *ow*, or *y*, or accented on the second syllable.

EXAMPLES.—Wise, *wiser*, *wisest*; noble, *nobler*, *noblest*; narrow, *narrower*, *narrowest*; merry, *merrier*, *merriest*; polite, *politer*, *politest*.

And also *common*, *handsome*, *sober*, *tender*, etc.

474. *More* and *most* are placed before other adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—Vicious, *more* vicious, *most* vicious; interesting, *more* interesting, *most* interesting.

Er and *est*, and *more* and *most*, are used to compare adjectives *above the positive*.

(a) If an adjective compared by suffixing *er* and *est* is used with one compared by using *more* and *most*, both adjectives should be separately compared, or the smaller adjective should be placed first, and both be compared by one word, *more* or *most*; as, "The *wisest* and *most advantageous* course." "The *more nice* and *elegant parts*."

"Any adjective may be compared by *more* and *most*, if the ear is better satisfied with the combination of sounds produced. 'It is *most true*.' 'A *more worthy* course.'"—*Bain*.

475. *Less* and *least* are placed before adjectives to compare them *below the positive*.

EXAMPLES.—Wise, *less* wise, *least* wise; important, *less* important, *least* important.

(a) *Compound adjectives* that admit of comparison are compared by changing the descriptive word; as, "Long-headed, *longer-headed*, *longest-headed*;" "good-natured, *better-natured*, *best-natured*."

Irregular Comparison.

476. The following adjectives are compared *irregularly* :

Pos.	Comp.	Sup.	Pos.	Comp.	Sup.
Bad, {	worse, ¹	worst.	Near,	nearer,	{ nearest,
Evil, }					{ next.
Ill, }				nether, ⁷	nethermost.
Far,	farther, ²	farthest.	Old,	{ older, ⁸	{ oldest,
Fore,	former,	{ foremost,		{ elder, ⁸	{ eldest.
		{ first.	(Out),	{ outer,	{ outmost,
(Forth), ³	further, ³	furthest.		{ utter,	{ uttermost.
Good,	better, ⁴	best.	Southern, ⁹	—	{ southern-
Hind,	hinder,	{ hindmost,			{ most.
		{ hindermost.	Top, ⁹	under, ⁷	undermost.
—	inner,	{ inmost,		—	topmost.
		{ innermost.	(Up),	upper,	{ upmost,
Late,	{ later, ⁵	{ latest,			{ uppermost.
	{ latter, ⁵	{ last.			
Little,	less, ⁶	least.			
Many, {	more,	most.			
Much, }					

1. *Worse* and *worst* are the comparative and superlative of the A.-S. *weor* (= *bad*).
 2. *Farther* = more distant; *further* = additional. 3. The words in parentheses are adverbs. 4. *Better* and *best* are the comparative and superlative of the A.-S. *bet* (= *good*). 5. *Later* and *latest* are opposed to *earlier* and *earliest*; *latter* and *last*, to *former* and *first*. 6. *Lesser* is sometimes used for *less*. Generally, it should not be used. 7. Some irregular adjectives have no positive. 8. *Older* and *oldest* apply to persons and things; *elder* and *eldest*, to persons only. *Older*, not *elder*, precedes *than*. 9. Some irregular adjectives have no comparative.

(a) The following adjectives imply comparison, but are not compared: *Inferior*, *superior*, *junior*, *senior*, *major*, *minor*, *interior*, *exterior*, *anterior*, *posterior*, *prior*, *ulterior*.

These words come to us directly from the Latin, in which they are comparatives.

EXERCISE.

477. Compare all of the following adjectives that can be compared. Compare the first ten below the positive:

Ill, noble, wise, studious, sick, ample, sublime, square, profound, indulgent, exact, triangular, tough, ill-mannered, round, preferable, thick, Christian, ancient, rural, final, joyful, full, fundamental, green, evil, high, hot, remote, near, droll, sprightly, dry, good-natured, distant, idle, industrious, lazy, successful, ornamental, useful, oily, gentle, polite, spiteful.

Number of "This" and "That."

Illustrations.—This book is mine. These books are yours. That horse. Those horses.

478. The **Number** of an adjective is a variation in its form to agree with the number of the noun that it modifies.

479. Two adjectives, *this* (plural *these*) and *that* (plural *those*), have number.

EXERCISE.

(a) *Correct the errors in the following sentences :*

1. Draw a straighter line.
2. She is the tallest of the two.
3. The Bible is more valuable than any book.
4. Eve was the loveliest of her daughters.
5. He was the tallest of all the other boys.
6. That is the most universal opinion of the two.
7. This is more reddish than that.
8. Gladstone is the wisest statesman of his associates.
9. Is not this more superior?
10. A more old-fashioned man I have not saw this five years.

Rules of Construction.

480. Rule 15. An *adjective* is used to modify a noun or a pronoun. (159, etc.)

(a) **Special Rule 12.** An *adjective* is sometimes used absolutely, as the complement of a verbal. (167.)

Rule 12 and *Special Rule 7* apply also to adjectives used as subordinate conjunctives. (199, 371, 464.)

PARSING.

481. FORMS OF PARSING.—WRITTEN PARSING.

1. *This bridge—what interesting associations cluster about it!*
- | | | | |
|---------------|--------------|--------------|----------------|
| <i>p</i> | <i>def a</i> | <i>def a</i> | <i>p des a</i> |
| ? | ? | ? | ? |
| <i>bridge</i> | <i>asso</i> | <i>p</i> | <i>asso</i> |

ORAL PARSING.

This is a pronominal definitive adjective, in the singular number. It is used to modify *bridge*.

What is a definitive adjective. It is used to modify *associations*.

Interesting is a participial descriptive adjective, in the positive degree. It is used to modify *associations*.

WRITTEN PARSING.

2. *The board was planed smooth.* 3. *He planed the board smooth.*
 $\begin{array}{c} \text{def a} \\ \text{board} \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c} \text{des a} \\ p \\ \text{board} \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c} \text{def a} \\ \text{board} \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c} \text{des a} \\ p \\ \text{board} \end{array}$

ORAL PARSING.

Smooth is a descriptive adjective, in the positive degree. It is used in predication with *board*, to modify it.

Smooth is a descriptive adjective, in the positive degree. It is used in predication with *board*, to modify it.

The first "smooth" is a *s. p. a.* (161); the second is an *o. p. a.* (171).

WRITTEN PARSING.

4. *Do we realize what labor it requires to become learned?*
 $\begin{array}{c} o \text{ def a} \\ \text{labor} \\ \text{in cl} \\ \text{realize} \end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c} p \text{ des a} \\ p \\ \text{to become} \end{array}$

ORAL PARSING.

What is a conjunctive definitive adjective. It is used to modify *labor*. It is also used to introduce the clause *what labor it requires*, etc., and join it to *realize*.

Learned is a participial descriptive adjective, in the positive degree. It is used absolutely as the complement of *to become*.

EXERCISE.

432. Parse the adjectives in the following sentences :

1. Every natural action is graceful. 2. The twinkling stars shine above the wave-tossed and rock-bound coast. 3. The Spanish troops captured twenty cannon at Seville. 4. Why call ye me good? 5. Why do you desire to call me good? 6. The great Chinese wall is twelve hundred and fifty miles long. 7. Many a one dies young. 8. Hearken, lords and ladies gay! 9. It is wrong to be deceitful. 10. Keep whatever company is of most benefit to you.

For additional exercises in parsing adjectives, see 40, 162, 166, 172, and 180.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

(a) Analyze the following sentences, and parse the nouns, pronouns, verbs, and adjectives in them :

1. The weather held fine.—*Howells*. 2. He lived unknown.—*Wordsworth*. 3. Inside, hearts are gay. 4. I will not leave you comfortless.—*John xiv*, 18. 5. How beautiful they stand!—*Mrs. Hemans*. 6. They heard of my¹ being ill. 7. Strive to become more frugal and industrious² each year. 8. Do the locusts come every³ seventeen years? 9. It is wrong to be wrong. 10. I know not what course others may take. 11. Columbus had no thought of becoming disheartened. 12. What strange chance has made him worthy⁴ of all this praise? 13. To be wise is more creditable than to be called wise. 14. Is the farm worth⁵ a thousand⁶ dollars?⁷ 15. Forgive every one⁸ his brother their trespasses.—*See Matt. xviii*, 35. 16. Which⁹ route the French troops will take is unknown.

17.

Whichever¹⁰ way I turn,

The same sad sights I see.

18. How bright and joyous is the brooklet's melody! how careless and happy the song it ever sings as its silvery waters dance along o'er its pebbly bed! 19. Six times his gossamery web the wary spider threw.—*Barton*.

20.

Who has not dreamed a world of bliss

On a bright sunny morn like this!—*Mrs. Howitt*.

1. 338 b. 2. Supply *more*. 3. *Every* modifies *seventeen years*. 4. What must be supplied? 5. 161. 6. *Thousand* is a noun used as an adjective (*n. adj.*). As a noun, it is modified by *a*; as an adjective, it modifies *dollars*. Or, *a thousand* may be construed as an adjective. 7. 350. 8. 354, 2. 9. Say, it introduces the clause, *which route the French troops will take*. 10. 463, 4. What verb does the clause modify?

ERRORS TO BE CORRECTED.

(b) *Correct the following errors. (One of the sentences is correct.)*

1. Give me them books.

ORAL CORRECTION.

This is incorrect. The pronoun *them* is used as an adjective, to modify *books*. In its place *those* should be used, and the sentence should be, *Give me those books*.

WRITTEN CORRECTION.

Give me them books.
those

WRITTEN CORRECTIONS.

2. Take the smaller of the three. 3. The rose is the beautifullest flower.
smallest most beautiful

4. Send me either one of the three. 5. These sort of persons¹ are not admired. 6. I like those kind of apples. 7. What kind of an² apple is it? 8. What for a³ book have you? 9. There is another and better world. 10. Which is the largest, the minuend or the subtrahend? 11. I have a dull sort of a⁴ headache. 12. Argus had an hundred eyes. 13. The one half of six is three. 14. This is more correct than that. 15. My friend W—— is taller than any one of my acquaintances. 16. England had not such another king. 17. The four last parts of speech. 18. The nine first chapters of Proverbs. 19. The gravel snow covered long walk. 20. An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, adjective, or another adverb.

1. Persons of this sort. 2. 464 i. 3. A German idiom (*was für ein*). 4. Omit sort of a.

FOR REVIEW.

483. Review the remarks and exercises that are numbered.

ADVERBS.

484. An Adverb is a word used to modify a verb, a verbal, an adjective, or another adverb, without representing an object.

Adverbs are also used to modify other parts of speech.

(a) Words from other parts of speech sometimes become adverbs; as, "*Smack* went the whip" (v.). "*Red* hot" (adj.). "*Wide* open" (adj.).

See 198 and 205.

(b) By the omission of a verb of motion, some adverbs have come to be used as verbs; as, "I'll *hence* to London."—*Shak.* "I'll *in*."—*Ib.* "*Down*, soothless insulter!"—*Campbell.*

In sentences like the foregoing, a verb may probably be supplied ("I'll *go* hence"), but in the following sentences "the insertion of the verb would totally enervate or greatly alter the expression" (*Goold Brown*): "*Away* with him!"—*Acts xxi*, 36. "*She up* with her fist."—*Sydney.*

So also *up with it, down with it, in with it, out with it, over with it, under with it, etc.*, in which *up, down, in, out, over, under, etc.*, should be parsed as verbs.

"Probably the best way to dispose of *up* [in "*She up with her fist,*" etc.] is to call it an intransitive, defective verb."—*W. D. Henkle*.

(c) *Much, little, well, ill, no, only, still, first, last, fast, hard, like, near, etc.*, may be used either as adjectives or as adverbs.

When *like* is used as an adjective or an adverb, two persons or things are compared. If the comparison is made through an action done by the first, *like* is an adverb; if not so made, it is an adjective. In both cases it is followed by an indirect object; as, "The albatross fell off, and sank *like* lead into the sea."—*Coleridge (adv.)*. "The trumpet's blast, *like* the thunder of God, makes our hearts beat fast."—*Brooks tr. (adj.)*. "They fought *like* brave men" (*adv.*). "They seemed *like* brave men" (*adj.*).

(d) The phrases *at last, at random, in general, in short, etc.*, may be called *phrase-adverbs (ph. adv.)*, and may thus be distinguished from phrases used as adverbs, in which the preposition and its object are construed separately. *As it were* is sometimes used as a *clause-adverb*.

Little by little, one by one, by and by, etc., may also be called phrase-adverbs.

485. In using adverbs, care must be taken to *select appropriate words*. Remember that—

1. An *adverb* should be used to describe an act; an *adjective* to describe an object.

EXAMPLES.—"I arrived *safely*" (= My arrival was a safe one). "I arrived *safe*" (= I was safe when I arrived). "The *lime* burns *white*." "Sugar tastes *sweet*." "The *sun* shines *bright*." "The sun shines *brightly*." "The blind man looks (*sharp* or *sharply*)." "The *child* was called *tender*." "The child was called *tenderly*."

When *be* or *become* can be used instead of the verb, the modifying word should be an adjective.

2. *No* should not be used instead of *not*.

"Will you go, or no?" should be "*or not?*"

3. But one negative word should be used to express denial.

"I do *not* want *nothing*" should be "I do *not* want anything," or "I want nothing."

4. When affirmation is intended, *not* is correctly used with words beginning with *dis-*, *in-*, *un-*, etc.

EXAMPLES.—“He is not dissatisfied.” “They are not unconcerned.”

5. In affirmative sentences, *as* and *so* may be used; in negative, *so* and *as*.

EXAMPLES.—“I am *as* tall *as* he.” “She is not *so* old *as* Jane.”

6. The preposition *from* should not be used before *hence* (= from this place), *thence*, and *whence*.

7. *When* should not be used to join clauses to nouns not expressing time; *where*, to nouns not expressing place.

R. “The hour when he will arrive is not known.” “I have forgotten the date when he came.” “O’er the grave where our hero we buried.” “The fittest place where man can die,” etc. So also, *the moment when*, *the time when*, *the spot where*, *a position where*, etc.

W. “The family where he stayed received him cordially.” “A partnership where several partners are unknown,” etc.

8. We should not use *illy*, *that there*, *this here*, *as* for *so*, *good* for *well*, *how* or *how that* for *that*, *like* for *as*, ‘*most*’ for *almost*, *near* for *nearly*, *that* for *so*, ‘*way*’ for *away*, *such a* (adj.) (noun) for *so* (adj.) *a* (noun).

9. Exaggerations and repetitions should be avoided.

EXERCISE.

486. Correct the errors in the following sentences:

1. Speak prompt and loud. 2. This is no good. 3. I am terribly glad to see you. 4. It is colored brightly. 5. I do n’t know nothing about him. 6. He was most killed. 7. She is not as old as me. 8. How slow the moon is rising! 9. The paper where he saw it in is torn. 10. Such a delightfully lovely day we have never had for a long time.

CLASSES OF ADVERBS.

Inductive Lesson.—1. She came quietly. 2. Go there. 3. He will return here soon. 4. Now, slowly, then, there, hence, even, only, very.

QUESTIONS.—*What word modifies the verb "come" ? How did she come ? Does "quietly" show the manner of her coming ? Where am I to go ? Does the adverb "there" denote place ? What does "here" denote ? "Soon" ? "Slowly" ?*

487. Adverbs may be divided into the following classes :

1. Adverbs of Manner ; as, *so, well, as, ill, like, how, thus, somehow, aloud, together, etc.*

Adverbs of manner answer the question *How ?* They generally modify verbs. To this class some authors add *modal adverbs*, or adverbs that modify propositions, by showing how the statement is made or regarded ; as, "*Truly, this was the Son of God.*" "*Verily, verily, I say unto you.*" Most modal adverbs can be disposed of as modifying the *asserting word*, or *verb*.

Adverbs of *affirmation, negation, and doubt* are sometimes classed as adverbs of manner.

2. Adverbs of Place ; as, *here, there, whence, hither, above, somewhere, back, off, up, forth, etc.*

Adverbs of place answer the question *Where ? Whither ? or Whence ?*

3. Adverbs of Time ; as, *now, always, then, already, early, seldom, daily, sometimes, till, since, henceforth, etc.*

Adverbs of time answer the question *When ? How long ? or How often ?* *Once, twice, thrice,* denote time. *First, secondly, thirdly,* etc., denote either place or time. (*Firstly* should not be used.)

The nouns *to-day, to-morrow, to-night,* and *yesterday* are generally called adverbs of time.

4. Adverbs of Degree ; as, *much, less, too, as, so, fully, quite, how, infinitely, all, etc.*

Adverbs of degree answer the question, *In what degree ? or How much ?* They generally modify adjectives or adverbs.

5. Adverbs of Cause ; as, *why, therefore, accordingly, hence, consequently, etc.*

Adverbs of cause answer the question *Why ?*

6. Adverbs of Affirmation and Negation ; as, *verily, certainly, truly, not, no, etc.*

7. Adverbs of Doubt ; as, *perhaps, perchance, probably, etc.*

8. Adverbs of Addition ; as, *besides, still, etc.*

9. Adverbs of Emphasis ; as, *only, too, but, even, also, both, either, neither, etc.* (175.)

Adverbs of emphasis are used to render other words more emphatic. They may modify nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, verbals, phrases, clauses, or sentences.

In "I, too, am sick," *I* is emphasized, and hence modified. In "I am sick, too," *sick* is made emphatic. In "I am too sick," *too* is an adverb of degree. In "Both winds and waves sweep round the light-house," *both* modifies *winds* and *waves*. *Neither* modifies *just* and *kind* in "It was neither just nor kind." *Both* and *neither* in such constructions are usually called conjunctions (558 a).

10. The Adverb of Position, *there* ; as, "There was no one here." (177.)

Phrases and *clauses* used as adverbs may express manner, place, time, degree, cause, etc.

438. To the foregoing classes may be added—

1. Interrogative adverbs, or adverbs used to ask questions. The words that may be thus used are *how*, *where*, *whither*, *whence*, *when*, and *why*.

EXAMPLES.—"*How* can I go ?" "*Whence* come the clouds ?"

2. Conjunctive adverbs, or adverbs used to introduce clauses, and join them to the words that the clauses modify. The words that may be thus used are *how*, *where*, *whither*, *whence*, *when*, *why*, *as*, *before*, *after*, *till*, *until*, *however*, *wherever*, *whenever*, and *while*.

EXAMPLES.—"I saw *how* a pencil is made." "O'er the grave *where* our hero we buried."—*Wolfe*. "The tree lies *where* it fell." (198.)

See Appendix, p. 261, note 4.

The use of *directly* and *immediately* as conjunctive adverbs may be tolerated in England, but certainly not in America ; as, "The work was suppressed *directly* it appeared."—*Buckle*.

EXERCISE.

439. Mention five adverbs of manner, not given above ; five of place ; five of time ; three of degree ; two of cause. Mention five adverbs expressing quality. To what class do these adverbs belong ? Mention three adverbs expressing direction ; three expressing affirmation ; three interrogative adverbs ; two conjunctive adverbs.

COMPARISON.

Illustrations.—Albert will come soon. George will come sooner. Early, earlier, earliest. Wisely, more wisely, less wisely; most wisely, least wisely.

490. Comparison is a property of adverbs as well as of adjectives. (466.)

Not so many adverbs as adjectives can be compared.

491. Adverbs are regularly compared *above the positive* by the use of *er* and *est*, or *more* and *most*. *More* and *most* are generally used. (471, etc.)

EXAMPLES.—*Soon, sooner, soonest; often, oftener, oftenest; beautifully, more beautifully, most beautifully.*

“The comparison with *more* and *most* is as old with adverbs as with adjectives.”—*Maetzner*.

492. Adverbs are regularly compared *below the positive* by the use of *less* and *least*. (475.)

EXAMPLES.—*Wisely, less wisely, least wisely; foolishly, less foolishly, least foolishly.*

493. A few adverbs are *irregularly* compared :

<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Comp.</i>	<i>Sup.</i>	<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Comp.</i>	<i>Sup.</i>
Badly or ill,	worse,	worst.	Much,	more,	most.
Far,	farther, ¹	farthest.	Well,	better,	best.
Forth,	further, ¹	furthest.	—	rather,	—
Little,	less,	least.			

1. *Farther* is applied to space; *further*, to quantity.

EXERCISE.

494. Compare the following adverbs:

Often, industriously, freely, late, ill, long, frequently, fast, neatly, easily.

Rules of Construction.

495. Rule 16. An *adverb* is used to modify a verb, a verbal, an adjective, or another adverb. (173.)

(a) **Special Rule 13.** An *adverb* is sometimes used to modify a noun, a pronoun, a phrase, a clause, or a sentence. (174, etc.)

(b) **Special Rule 14.** The adverb *there* is sometimes used simply to change the relative position of the subject and predicate of a sentence or a clause. (177.)

(c) **Special Rule 15.** An *adverb* is sometimes used independently; as, "*Well*, what is it?"

"Adverbs used independently" may be called *interjections*, and *Special Rule 15* may be omitted.

Rule 12 and *Special Rule 7* apply also to adverbs used as subordinate conjunctives. (199, 371, 488, 2.)

PARSING.

496. FORMS OF PARSING.—WRITTEN PARSING.

1. Even philosophers can not endure the toothache patiently.
- | | | |
|--------------|-----------------|------------------------|
| a em
phil | a neg
can en | a m
p
can endure |
|--------------|-----------------|------------------------|

ORAL PARSING.

Even is an adverb of emphasis. It is used to modify *philosophers*.

Patiently is an adverb of manner, in the positive degree. It is used to modify *can endure*.

WRITTEN PARSING.

2. There is a land where the rainbow never fades.
- | | | |
|---------------|---------------------------------|--------------|
| a p
i & is | c a p
fades
in cl
land | a t
fades |
|---------------|---------------------------------|--------------|

ORAL PARSING.

There is an adverb of position. It is used to change the relative position of *land* and *is*.

Where is a conjunctive adverb of place. It is used to modify *fades*. It is also used to introduce the clause *where the rainbow never fades*, and join it to *land*.

EXERCISE.

497. Parse the adverbs in the following sentences :

1. I do not know why there are no frogs in Ireland.
2. Why did not Pharaoh permit the children of Israel to depart peaceably?
3. We very well know how necessary water is to vegetable life.
4. Some species of plants are almost wholly alike in their structure, and differ only in the shape or proportion of their parts.
5. Hu-

man food seems to be the only produce of land which always and necessarily affords some rent to the landlord.—*Adam Smith*.

For additional exercises in parsing adverbs, see 44, 176, 179, and 205.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

(a) *Analyze the following sentences, and parse the nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs in them.*

1. Mica is often wrongly called isinglass. 2. Well,¹ what did he say then? 3. How sad they look! 4. Only a woman knows a woman's needs. 5. Ordinary glass is made by melting together quartz sand and soda.—*Dana*. 6. I went there yesterday mainly for the purpose of seeing you again. 7. Where art thou, beloved To-morrow?—*Shelley*.

8. Trade hardly deems the busy day begun,

Till his keen eye along the sheet has run.—*Sprague*.

9. Even virtue is more fair when² it appears in a beautiful person.—*Virgil*. 10. When last seen,³ he was in his boat, rowing idly about, just below the falls. 11. We should do good whenever and wherever we can. 12. The⁴ deeper the well, the⁵ cooler the water. 13. How an acorn becomes an oak, is a mystery. 14. Why it is as⁶ it is, is unknown.

15. Even as a miser counts his gold,

Those hours the ancient time-piece told.—*Longfellow*.

1. 495 c, or 570. 2. The clause modifies *is*. 3. Supply *he was*. 4. *The* is a conjunctive adverb of degree; it modifies *deeper*. It joins the clause *the deeper the well* to *cooler*. (By what degree the well is deeper, to that degree the water is cooler.) 5. *The* is an adverb of degree; it modifies *cooler*. 6. 488, 2, and 487, 1.

ERRORS TO BE CORRECTED.

(b) *Correct the following errors. (One of the sentences is correct.)*

1. How are you? Tolerable well.

ORAL CORRECTION.

This is incorrect. The adjective *tolerable* is used as an adverb to modify *well*. In its place *tolerably* should be used, and the sentence should be, *Tolerably well*.

WRITTEN CORRECTION.

Tolerable well.
tolerably

2. I only paid five dollars.

ORAL CORRECTION.

This is incorrect. The adverb *only*, which modifies *five dollars*, is placed as if it were a modifier of *paid*. Its position should be changed, and the sentence should be, *I paid only five dollars*.

WRITTEN CORRECTION.

I only paid five dollars.
wa ^

3. From whence came the storm? 4. It's not right, I don't think. 5. Every body works nearly. 6. I most fell. 7. He is awful kind. 8. The pupils were told not to talk. 9. He went that far yesterday. 10. Do not do like he did. 11. Pupils who take exercise frequently recite well. 12. He enjoys miserable poor health. 13. He don't go nowhere. 14. A diphthong is where two vowels are sounded together. 15. There is two cases: firstly, where the terms are alike; and secondly, where they are unlike. 16. I have only did six problems. 17. That there book is hisen. 18. Whether it can be proven or no, is not the thing. 19. The meaning of the paragraph is not expressed as clear as it should. 20. It is very rarely that one has such a good chance.

FOR REVIEW.

498. Review the remarks and exercises that are numbered.

VERBALS.

499. A Verbal is a word that is derived from a verb and partakes of its nature, and is used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

See Appendix, p. 261, note 5.

CLASSES OF VERBALS.

Regular and Irregular Verbals.

Inductive Lesson.—1. Sing, to sing, singing. 2. Walk, to have walked, having walked. 3. Try, having tried. 4. Study, to study.

QUESTIONS.—Is "*sing*" a regular verb? Is "*to sing*" regular? "*Singing*"? "*Walk*"? "*Having walked*"?

500. Verbals, like verbs, are divided according to their form, into *Regular Verbals* and *Irregular Verbals*.

501. A **Regular Verbal** is a verbal derived from a regular verb.

EXAMPLES.—*To walk, walking; to have studied, having studied.* (385.)

502. An **Irregular Verbal** is a verbal derived from an irregular verb.

EXAMPLES.—*To fly, flying; to have gone, having gone.* (386.)

EXERCISE.

503. Which of the following verbals are regular, and which irregular?

To ring, running, seeing, having sawed, shown, acquired, to prove, having gone, to climb, to have learned.

Definite and Indefinite Verbals.

Inductive Lesson.—1. The workman desires to be employed. 2. His hands refuse to labor. 3. Minerals containing silica are called silicates. 4. To reign is worth ambition. 5. Ordinary glass is made by melting together quartz sand and soda.

QUESTIONS.—Name the verbals in the foregoing sentences. Who desires to be employed? What refuses to labor? Does "to labor" express action? As expressing action, what noun does it refer to? What does "refer" mean? As an action-word, to what noun does "containing" refer? What contains silica? Does "to reign" refer to a preceding noun or pronoun? In the fifth sentence, does any word denote who does the act of melting? Does "melting" refer to a preceding noun or pronoun?

To be employed, to labor, and containing refer to preceding nouns and pronouns. They may be called *definite verbals*.

To reign and melting are used without reference to a preceding noun or pronoun. They may be called *indefinite verbals*.

504. Verbals, classed with reference to preceding nouns and pronouns, may be divided into *Definite Verbals* and *Indefinite Verbals*.

505. A Definite Verbal is a verbal that refers to a preceding noun or pronoun.

EXAMPLES.—“Sandstone is a *rock made of sand*.” “Ere *man* learned to *hew* the shaft,” etc.—*Bryant*. “The *Son of man* is come to *seek* and to *save* that which was lost.”—*Luke xix, 10*. “*Slow* rises *worth* by poverty *depressed*.”—*Johnson*. “All *men* desire to be immortal.”—*Parker*. “To save *him* from being defeated by the caucus nominee, will require great effort.” “*I* can not help being an admirer of beauty.” “We at length ended our distressful voyage by *arriving* at Naples, after *having escaped* a thousand dangers.”—*Goldsmith*. “After the period of pure Anglo-Saxon, there was written an irregular *dialect called Semi-Saxon*.”—*March*.

506. An Indefinite Verbal is a verbal that is used without reference to a preceding noun or pronoun.

EXAMPLES.—“*To err* is human; *to forgive*, divine.”—*Pope*. “*To be* or not *to be*, that is the question.”—*Shak*. “*To spend* too much time in studies is sloth.”—*Bacon*. “*To be* a poet is *to be* a man.”—*Lamb*. “The surest way not *to fail* is to determine *to succeed*.”—*Spectator*. “*Reading* without purpose is sauntering.”—*Bulwer*. “*To save* him from being defeated by the caucus nominee, will require great effort.” “The folly of *becoming* a politician is often seen.”

EXERCISE.

507. In the following sentences, point out four definite and three indefinite verbals. To what words do the definite verbals refer?

1. We should try to do right.
2. It is cowardly to tell a lie.
3. I assured him he would have to encounter a winged dragon, compared to which the largest of those in the French romances was but a dragon-fly.—*Scott*.
4. Is trying to become a scholar difficult?
5. I came not here to talk.

Transitive and Intransitive Verbals.

- Inductive Lesson.**—1. Metals containing silica are called silicates.
2. I desire to begin promptly.

QUESTIONS.—Has “containing” a direct object? Has “to begin” a direct object? What part of speech is “containing”? “To begin”?

508. Verbals, like verbs, are divided according to their use as related to objects, into *Transitive Verbals* and *Intransitive Verbals*.

509. A **Transitive Verbal** is a verbal that has a direct object.

EXAMPLES.—"To resist evil by evil is evil."—*Mohammed*. "His success in *promoting learning*," etc. (394.)

510. An **Intransitive Verbal** is a verbal that does not have a direct object.

EXAMPLES.—"To read well is an accomplishment." "He escaped punishment by *running away*." (395.)

(a) Verbals, like verbs, may be transitive in one sentence and intransitive in another; as, "He desires to *study grammar*." (Tr.) "He desires to *study*." (Intr.) (395 a.)

(b) Some transitive verbals are followed by two objects, a *direct* and an *indirect object*; as, "He tried to *tell me* (indir.) the *story*" (dir.). "By *bringing me* the *book*," etc. (395 c.)

EXERCISE.

511. Which of the following verbals are transitive, and which intransitive?

1. The atrocious crime of being a young man I shall not attempt to palliate nor to deny. 2. You taught me first to beg. 3. His own history, after leaving France, was brief and melancholy.—*Scott*. 4. I began to perceive that it would be no light matter to break it up. 5. Being asked why he came, he replied, "To speak with the king."

PROPERTIES OF VERBALS.

512. The **Properties** of verbals are *voice*, *form*, and *tense*.

Voice.

Inductive Lesson.—1. The infantry were deployed to protect the batteries. 2. The batteries require to be protected. 3. Minerals containing silica are called silicates. 4. Sandstone is a rock made of sand.

5. To be employed is to be happy. 6. To save him from being defeated, etc.

QUESTIONS.—*Point out the verbals in the foregoing sentences. To what preceding noun does "to protect" refer? From what verb is it derived? In "The infantry protect the batteries," is "protect" transitive or intransitive? In what voice is it? In what voice may "to protect" be considered to be? To what preceding noun does "to be protected" refer? From what verb is it derived? In "The batteries are protected," is "are protected" transitive or intransitive? In what voice is it? In what voice may "to be protected" be considered to be? In "Minerals contain silica," in what voice is "contain"? In what voice is "containing," in the third sentence? From what verb is "to be employed" derived? In "He is employed," in what voice is "is employed"? In what voice may "to be employed" be said to be? In "We save him," in what voice is "save"? In what voice is "to save"?*

513. Transitive verbals, like transitive verbs, have two voices: the *active* and the *passive*.

514. A transitive verbal derived from a transitive verb in the active voice, is in the **active voice**.

EXAMPLES.—"He tried *to scale* the heights." (He *scaled* the heights.) "The captain saved the ship by *throwing* the cargo overboard." (The captain *threw* the cargo overboard.) (401.)

515. A transitive verbal derived from a transitive verb in the passive voice, is in the **passive voice**.

EXAMPLES.—"The men desire *to be employed*." (The men *are employed*.) "To *be employed* is to be happy." "Wealth *acquired* dishonestly often proves a curse." "*Being called* a thief is," etc. (402.)

(a) When a transitive verbal in the active voice refers to a preceding noun or pronoun, it shows that the word to which it refers represents the actor; as, "The *troops crossing* the river were attacked."

(b) In the passive voice, the verbal shows that the noun or pronoun to which it refers represents the receiver of the act; as, "The *troops attacked* by the enemy were crossing the river."

(c) The *passive-voice form* of a verbal consists of the perfect participle, or of the infinitive or participle of the verb *to be* combined with a perfect participle; as, The soldiers *wounded*, etc.; *to be wounded*; *to have been wounded*; *being wounded*; *having been wounded*.

EXERCISE.

516. *In what voice are the following verbals?*

1. Is it necessary to inflict corporal punishment for the purpose of maintaining good order? 2. After having silenced the guns, they attempted to storm the fort. 3. Do not wait to be asked. 4. I can easier teach twenty what were good to be done, than be one of the twenty to follow mine own teaching.—*Shak.*

5. My master is of churlish disposition,
And little reckes [cares] to find the way to heaven
By doing deeds of hospitality.—*Shak.*

Form.

Inductive Lesson.—1. The men came to learn it. 2. To have learned the art will be a pleasure. 3. The men learning the work are Germans. 4. After having learned it, they will be employed. 5. After delaying the train, etc. 6. To be reproved is the consequence of meddling.

QUESTIONS.—Which words in the foregoing sentences are verbals? What are the principal parts of the verb "learn"? "Delay"? "Reprove"? Is "to learn" an infinitive? What is "to have learned"? Is "learning" a participle? What is "having learned"? "Delaying"? "To be reproved"?

To learn and *to have learned* are verbals in the *infinitive form*.
Learning and *having learned* are verbals in the *participial form*.

517. Verbals have two forms: the *infinitive* and the *participial*.

These forms correspond to the forms of the infinitive and the participial mood of the verbs from which they are derived. (383.)

518. A verbal in the **infinitive form** consists of an infinitive or an infinitive and a participle.

EXAMPLES.—"To be employed is to be happy."—*Gray.* "The air 'gins to thicken."—*Beaumont and Fletcher.* (418 b.)

519. A verbal in the **participial form** consists of one or more participles.

EXAMPLE.—"We at length ended our distressful voyage by *arriving* at Naples, after *having escaped* a thousand dangers."—*Goldsmith.*

EXERCISE.

520. In what form are the verbals in 511 and 516 ?

Tense.

Inductive Lesson.—1. James tries to study the lesson. 2. To have studied the lesson will be a satisfaction. 3. By studying diligently you will succeed. 4. The lesson studied is difficult. 5. After having studied his lesson, he walked to the river.

QUESTIONS.—Point out the verbals in the foregoing sentences. Which are in the infinitive form ? Which are in the participial form ? Does "to study" refer to the same time as "tries" ? Does "to have studied" represent the act as completed at the time referred to ? What time is represented by "to study" ? By "studied" ? By "having studied" ?

The verbals derived from the verb *study* may be varied in their use and form to distinguish time, hence they have *tense*.

To study and *studying* represent the act as present at the time referred to, and they are said to be in the *present tense*. *Studied* represents the act as past at the time referred to, and it is said to be in the *past tense*. *To have studied* and *having studied* represent the act as completed at the time referred to by the verb in the sentence, and they are said to be in the *present-perfect tense*.

521. Verbals, like the verbs from which they are derived, have *tense*. (422.)

522. The infinitive form has two tenses: the *present* and the *present-perfect*. The participial form has three tenses: the *present*, the *present-perfect*, and the *past*.

523. A verbal in the *present tense* generally represents an act or state as present at the time referred to.

EXAMPLES.—"I desire to go." "The bird *flying* is a robin."

524. A verbal in the *present-perfect tense* generally represents an act or state as completed at the time referred to.

EXAMPLES.—"To have succeeded in the work is creditable." "After *having climbed* the tree, they pelted us with stones."

525. A verbal in the **past tense** generally represents an act or state as completed at the time referred to.

EXAMPLE.—“The army *surrendered* by Cornwallis numbered seven thousand men.”

(a) Words expressing *desire, command, expectation*, etc., have a reference to the future, which prevents them from being followed by the *perfect infinitive*; as, “I hoped *to go* ;” not, “I hoped *to have gone*.”

526. The Tenses in the Two Forms.

	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Pres.-Perfect.</i>	<i>Past.</i>
INFINITIVE :	To see,	to have seen.	_____
	To go,	to have gone.	_____
	To study,	to have studied.	_____
PARTICIPIAL :	Seeing,	having seen,	seen.
	Going,	having gone.	_____
	Studying,	having studied,	studied.

QUESTIONS.—Why has “go” no past tense? Which tense is always in the passive voice? What is the sign of the present-perfect tense? How may the present participle always be told?

EXERCISES.

527. Write a table like the foregoing with “love.” “Try.” “Rise.” “Catch,” in the passive voice. “Love,” in the passive voice.

528. In what tense are the verbals in 516?

USES OF VERBALS.

529. A verbal used as a noun is in the *neuter gender, third person*, and *singular number*. It may be used in the nominative or the objective case, but not in the possessive. (180.)

(a) A participial noun generally requires *the* before it and *of* after it. A participle used as a noun requires that both words be

omitted ; as, "By *the reading of* good books," etc. "By *reading* good books," etc.

In some sentences there is a difference in sense ; as, "He lost his grain by the burning of his barn." "He lost his grain by *burning* his barn."

(b) The infinitive verbal is generally used in connection with verbs ; the participial verbal is generally used after prepositions ; as, "I *desire to go*." "You will oblige me *by remaining*."

But we may say, "He *tried walking*." "None knew thee *but to love thee*."

In "I had rather die," *die* may be called a verbal used as the direct object of *had*.

530. *Verbals used as adjectives* may modify nouns and pronouns, and be the complements of verbs and verbals. (182.)

531. *Verbals used as adverbs* may modify verbs, verbals, adjectives, and adverbs. (184.)

(a) The conjunction *and* and a finite verb should not be used instead of a verbal with *to* ; as, "Come *to see* me ;" not "Come *and see* me." "Try *to come*," not "Try *and come*."

532. *Verbals* are sometimes used without any grammatical relation to other parts of the sentence.

EXAMPLE.—"Talking of beauty, have you seen Miss A.?"

That the participle *talking* is used independently, may be seen by examining the following sentence: "While we are talking of beauty, let me ask, have you seen Miss A.?" The two clauses modify *ask*, but are independent of each other.

Special Rule.

(a) **Special Rule 16.** A *verbal* is sometimes used independently.

This rule may be dispensed with by supplying the omitted words.

EXERCISE.

533. *How are the following verbals used ?*

1. The climate of England is not remarkable for knowing its own mind.—*Horace Smith*.
2. Marley was dead, to begin with.
3. Returning to the question, how many believe his statement to be true ?
4. Being urged to be on his guard, he armed himself before going forward to examine the route.
5. To try to prove the truth of a theorem by using the theorem, is called begging the question.

PARSING.

534. FORMS OF PARSING.—WRITTEN PARSING.

- 1.
- It is folly to think of assisting them in capturing the fort.*

<i>it</i>	<i>rt</i>	<i>rd</i>
<i>inf</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>vl</i>
<i>pr</i>	<i>par</i>	<i>them</i>
<i>n</i>	<i>pr</i>	<i>a</i>
<i>it</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>par</i>
<i>n</i>	<i>of</i>	<i>pr</i>
	<i>o</i>	<i>n</i>
		<i>in</i>
		<i>o</i>

ORAL PARSING.

Assisting is a regular, transitive, indefinite verbal, in the active voice, participial mood, and present tense. It is used as a noun, and is the object of *of*, hence it is in the objective case.

Capturing is a regular, transitive, definite verbal, referring to *them*. It is in the active voice, etc.

WRITTEN PARSING.

- 2.
- The substance sometimes used to adulterate molasses is glycerine.*

<i>rd</i>	<i>rd</i>
<i>sub</i>	<i>sub</i>
<i>p</i>	<i>a</i>
<i>par</i>	<i>inf</i>
<i>pa</i>	<i>pr</i>
<i>adj</i>	<i>adv</i>
<i>sub</i>	<i>used</i>

ORAL PARSING.

Used is a regular, transitive, definite verbal, referring to *substance*. It is in the passive voice, participial form, and past tense. It is used as an adjective, to modify *substance*.

To adulterate. It is used as an adverb, to modify *used*.

EXERCISE.

- 535.
- Parse the verbals in 507, 516, and 533.*

For additional exercises in parsing verbals, see 180, 182, 184, and 185 a.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

(a) *Analyze the following sentences, and parse the nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and verbals in them :*

1. Washington was a man to be admired. 2. A room may be cooled by sprinkling the floor with water. 3. Doing right¹ is

obeying³ God's law. 4. Time wasted is existence ; used, is life.—*Young*. 5. The word *geology* is from two Greek words signifying the story of the earth.—*Dana*. 6. "Ah !" cried the streamlet, "this is a heavenly light sent to tell me what I wish to know, and to guide me on my course." 7. A man's first care should be to avoid the reproaches of his own heart ; his second, to escape the censures of the world.—*Spectator*. 8. 'Speaking'³ of hard work, did you ever swing a scythe ?

9. Learn that to love is the one way to know
Or⁴ God or man.—*Jean Ingelow*.

10. One peculiarity of living things is their power of transforming matter into new forms, and thereby making products never produced in any other way.—*Gray*. 11. The best education in the world is that got by struggling to get a living.—*Wendell Phillips*. 12. To write a good love-letter, you ought to begin⁵ without knowing what you mean to say, and to finish⁵ without knowing what you have written.—*Rousseau*. 13. The superintendent believes it to be cheaper to train men to do the work required at the mills, than to pay strangers for doing it. 14. The way to gain a good reputation is to endeavor to be what you desire to appear.—*Socrates*.

15. A vile conceit in pompous words expressed,
Is like a clown in royal purple dressed.—*Pope*.

1. 348. 2. 520, 121. 3. 532. 4. 487, 9. See also 558 a, note 3. 5. 413.

ERRORS TO BE CORRECTED.

(b) *Correct the following errors. (One of the sentences is correct.)*

1. The house-tops were covered, looking at Jumbo.

ORAL CORRECTION.

This is incorrect. *Looking*, a definite verbal, is used without a preceding noun to which to refer. *With persons* should be inserted, and the sentence should be,
The house-tops were covered with persons looking at Jumbo.

WRITTEN CORRECTION.

Were covered looking, etc.
 ^
 with persons

2. I hoped to have seen you before. 3. I don't speak as correct as I used to. 4. I intended to have written yesterday. 5. By the

exercising our memory, it is improved. 6. Feeling assured of your support, your presence is expected. 7. She was persuaded for to go. 8. I have not saw him, and I do not wish to. 9. Having taught the pupils the elements of the subject orally, they are ready to study a text-book. 10. Artaxerxes could not refuse pardoning him. 11. Do not try and do too much. 12. You need not wait for me. 13. He expected to immediately return. 14. They were not able, as individuals, to have influenced the twentieth part of the population. 15. Refuse to bow before shadows and worship phrases.

FOR REVIEW.

536. Review the remarks and exercises that are numbered.

PREPOSITIONS.

537. A **Preposition** is a word used with a noun or a pronoun to form a phrase, which it joins to the word that the phrase modifies.

Or, a *preposition* is a word that shows the relation of an object, an action, or a quality to an object. It is frequently defined as a word which shows the relation between its object and some other word.

The principal relations shown by prepositions are those of place, time, and cause, reason, or purpose.

538. The **Object** of a preposition is the word with which it is used to form a phrase.

(a) The object of a preposition may be—

1. A *word* used as a noun ; as, "He went to *Lancaster*." (Noun.)
 "Come to *me*." (Pronoun.) "After *having fled*," etc. (Verbal.)
 "Of the *good*." "From *within*." "What are the modifiers of *truly*?"

2. A *phrase* used as a noun ; as, "They came from *beyond Jordan*."
From beyond may also be called a preposition. (543 a.)

3. A *clause* used as a noun ; as, "That will be determined by *what he says*." "Reason and justice have been jurymen ever since *before Noah was a sailor*."—*Shak*.

539. A preposition may have *two or more objects*, and two or more prepositions may have the *same object*.

EXAMPLES.—“The difficulties *between England and Ireland* are a source of *misunderstanding and ill-feeling*.” “They marched *up and down the hill*.”

540. When a word usually a preposition has no word to govern, it becomes an *adverb*, a *noun*, or an *adjective*.

EXAMPLES.—“Come *in*.” “He went *about*.” “The man jumped *down*.” “It came from *within*.” “The plain *below*.”

541. Observe the following **cautions** :

1. The use of needless prepositions should be avoided.

EXAMPLE.—“At noon,” or “about noon;” not “at about noon.”

2. Needed prepositions should not be omitted.

EXAMPLE.—“I was *at* home;” not “I was home.”

EXERCISE.

542. *Correct the following errors* :

1. It is no use to me. 2. They were prevented coming. 3. To whom shall we go to for help and for strength? 4. It is to me that he came to. 5. Is he worthy our confidence?

LIST OF PREPOSITIONS.

543. The following *prepositions* are in common use :

A, ¹	Amongst, ⁴	Betwixt, ⁵	From,
Aboard,	Around,	Beyond,	In, ¹⁴
About,	At, ³	But, ¹⁰	Into, ¹⁸
Above,	Athwart,	By, ¹¹	Notwithstanding,
Across,	Before,	Concerning, ¹²	Of, ¹⁶
After, ²	Behind,	Down,	Off, ¹⁷
Against,	Below,	During,	On,
Along,	Beneath,	Ere, ¹³	Over,
Amid, ³	Beside, ⁶	Except,	Past, ¹⁵
Amidst, ³	Besides, ⁷	Excepting, ⁹	Respecting, ¹³
Among, ⁴	Between, ⁸	For,	Save, ¹⁹

Since,	Toward,	Upon,	As to,
Through,	Towards,	With, ¹¹	Because of,
Throughout,	Under,	Within,	Contrary to,
Till, ¹⁰	Underneath,	Without.	From out,
To,	Until, ¹⁰	——	Instead of, ¹¹
Touching, ¹¹	Up,	According to,	Out of.

1. "I ride once a day." 'He gave them four shillings *a-piece*, or *a man*.' In Early English (Morris's *Accidence*, p. 196), this 'a' is seen to be the old preposition 'on,' 'an,' or 'a.' It is *not* (though it might seem to be) the Indefinite Adjective." —*Addott*. 2. Following in time or place. It is sometimes equivalent to *for*. 3. *Amid*, *amidst*, generally imply quantity. 4. *Among*, *amongst*, generally imply number. They should be used only when more than two are referred to. 5. When applied to place, *at* should be used before the names of houses, small places, and distant cities not well known. (See *In*.) 6. By the side of. 7. In addition to. 8. *Between*, *betwixt*, are generally used when only two are referred to. 9. Rare. 10. *But* is generally called a preposition when it is used in the sense of *except*. 11. "I went *by* the house." (See *Past*.) *By* an agent; *with* an instrument. 12. *Concerning*, *respecting*, and *touching* are generally interchangeable. 13. *Ere* = before. 14. *In*, when applied to place, should be used before the names of countries, and large, well-known cities. (See *At*.) "We walk *in* the park." (Motion in a place.) 15. *Into* denotes entrance. It should be used after verbs of motion. 16. The rays *of* (proceeding from) the sun. The castle *of* (belonging to) the king. The news *of* (about) the battle. 17. A variation of *of*. 18. *Past* generally refers to time. 19. *Save* = except. 20. *Till*, *until*, are now used only with reference to time. 21. Often, *in stead of*. (Cf. *In place of*.)

(a) The following *prepositions* are less common :

Abaft, aboard of, adown, alongside, along with, as for, aslant, bating, but for, despite, despite of, from among, from before, from behind, from beyond, from under, inside, outside, over against, pending, per, sans, saving, together with, versus, via, withal, withinside.

Rules of Construction.

544. Rule 17. A *preposition* is used to introduce a phrase and join it to the word that the phrase modifies. (190.)

(a) **Special Rule 17.** A *preposition* is sometimes used simply to introduce a phrase.

PARSING.

545. FORMS OF PARSING.—WRITTEN PARSING.

Toward the center of the earth is called down.

^P
in ph

^P
in ph
center

ORAL PARSING.

Toward is a preposition. It is used to introduce the phrase *toward center*.

Of is a preposition. It is used to introduce the phrase *of earth*, and join it to *center*.

EXERCISE.

546. Parse the prepositions in the following sentences :

1. The Island of Britain was the latest of Rome's conquests in the West.—*Green*. 2. I purpose to write the history of England from the accession of King James the Second down to a time which is within the memory of men still living.—*Macaulay*. 3. The curiosity entertained by all civilized nations of inquiring into the exploits and adventures of their ancestors, commonly excites a regret that the history of remote ages should always be so much involved in obscurity, uncertainty, and contradiction.—*Hume*.

For additional exercises, see 191, 193, and 195.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

(a) **Analyze the following sentences, and parse all the words in them except "O" and the conjunctions :**

1. It was done according to law. 2. Will you not stop walking up¹ and down the hall ?

3. But O ! the choice what heart can doubt,
Of tents with love, or thrones without ?—*Moore*.

4. What can they see in the longest kingly line in Europe, save² that it runs back to a successful soldier ?—*Scott*. 5. Thus was gained by William, Duke of Normandy, the great and decisive victory of Hastings, after a battle which was fought from morning till sunset, and which seemed worthy, by the heroic valor displayed by both armies and by both commanders, to decide the fate of a mighty kingdom.—*Hume*. 6. Whom, therefore, ye ignorantly worship, him declare I unto you.—*Acts xvii, 23*.

7. Errors, like straws, upon the surface flow ;
He who would search for pearls must dive below.—*Dryden*.

1. Say, it is used with *down* to join the phrase *up and down hall* to *walking*.
2. 538 a, 3.

ERRORS TO BE CORRECTED.

(b) *Correct the following errors. (One of the sentences is correct.)*

1. Consider of this matter.

ORAL CORRECTION.

This is incorrect. The preposition *of* is used after the transitive verb *consider*. It should be omitted, and the sentence should be, *Consider this matter.*

WRITTEN CORRECTION.

Consider of this matter.
uw

2. Don't run ; wait on me. 3. I do not agree with those remarks. 4. She was entertained with music. 5. He came on last evening. 6. Where did you get this at ? 7. We graduated in Yale. 8. He was presented with a cane. 9. I'll be done till Thursday. 10. The space between three lines is a triangle. 11. The superlative degree implies a comparison between three or more. 12. They are expressed in prose instead of in poetry. 13. Idleness, vice, and infidelity take off the relish and enjoyment from what we might otherwise draw comfort and delight.

FOR REVIEW.

547. *Review the remarks and exercises that are numbered.*

CONJUNCTIONS.

548. A **Conjunction** is a word used to join sentences, or parts of a sentence.

CLASSES OF CONJUNCTIONS.

549. Conjunctions are divided into two chief classes : *Co-ordinate Conjunctions* and *Subordinate Conjunctions*.

550. A **Co-ordinate Conjunction** is a conjunction used to

join sentences, or parts of a sentence that have the same construction.

EXAMPLES.—“I go, *but* I return.” “Phillips Brooks is a vigorous *and* independent thinker.” (52.)

551. A Subordinate Conjunction is a conjunction used with a subject and a predicate to form a clause, which it joins to the word that the clause modifies.

EXAMPLE.—“Was not Aristides banished *because* he was just?” (58.)

List of Conjunctions.

552. The principal *co-ordinate conjunctions* are—

Copulative: *And, as well as,*¹ *moreover.* **Adversative:** *But, yet.* **Alternative:** *Nor,*² *or.*

1. *As well as*, when *and also* can be used in its stead, is a copulative, co-ordinate conjunction. 2. *Nor*, when equivalent to *and not*, might be called a *co-ordinate conjunctive adverb*, or an *adverbial conjunction*.

553. The principal *subordinate conjunctions* are—

Casual: *As* (= because), *because, for, lest, since* (= because), *whereas.* **Conditional:** *Except, if, provided, unless.* **Comparative:** *Than.* **Concessive:** *Though, although.* **Demonstrative:** *That.* **Indeterminate:** *Whether.*

(a) To the foregoing list may be added *as if, as though, except that, provided that, save, saving that, seeing that, however, inasmuch as, forasmuch as, so that, in order that, notwithstanding, so as, etc.*

“Such words as *therefore, hence, still, accordingly, consequently, yet, likewise, also, etc.*, are only simple adverbs—not even connective adverbs; still less are they mere conjunctions.”—*Mason.*

(b) Sometimes a word usually an adverb, when it is near the beginning of a sentence or a clause, may be considered a conjunction; as, “*Now* Barabbas was a robber.” “Do as you please; *only* do not expect me to help you.”

554. The following *cautions* should be observed:

1. In a series of similar terms the conjunction is generally used between the last two only, and a comma follows each term but the last.

EXAMPLE.—"A clause may be used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb."

But the conjunction may be repeated after each term for emphasis; as, "Be good, and kind, and thoughtful, and polite." Let us remember, however, that the unnecessary repetition of *and* greatly weakens the force of a sentence.

2. Do not use *but that* or *but what* for *that*; *neither—or*, for *neither—nor*; *other—but*, for *other—than*; *whether or no* for *whether or not*; *if* for *whether*.

EXERCISE.

555. *Correct the following errors:*

1. I don't know but what I will go.
2. It was no other but James.
3. Neither him or her done it.
4. I met John, James, and William and Henry.
5. Have you heard if he was elected?

Correlative Conjunctions.

Inductive Lesson.—1. Both schools and churches are educators.
2. Schools and churches are educators. 3. Neither moon nor stars could be seen. 4. The problem is so difficult that we can not solve it.
5. I do not know whether I shall go or stay.

QUESTIONS.—What conjunction follows the word "*both*"? "*Neither*"? "*So*"? "*Whether*"? Could we say "*both churches or schools*"? Why not? What conjunction must follow "*both*"? What two words are necessary to join "*moon*" and "*stars*"? What word prepares the way for "*nor*"? For "*that*"? What part of speech is "*so*"? What conjunction follows "*whether*"?

Both and *and* are called correlatives, because *both* prepares the way for *and*, and is followed by *and*.

QUESTIONS.—What correlatives are in the third sentence? The fourth? The fifth?

556. **Correlatives** are words used in pairs, the latter of which is a *co-ordinate conjunction* or a *subordinate conjunction*.

They are said to be *correlative* (i. e., to have a mutual relation), because the former is always followed by the latter.

557. The antecedent or preparatory term may be—

1. A *pronoun*.

EXAMPLE.—“*Such* as I have, give I thee.”—*Acts* iii, 6.

2. An *adjective*.

EXAMPLES.—“Take *such* books as you need.” “Hydrogen is eleven thousand times *lighter* than water.”

3. An *adverb* expressing comparison.

EXAMPLES.—“Time is *as* precious as gold.” “How much *earlier* does the sun rise in summer than in winter?”

4. An *adverb of emphasis*.

EXAMPLE.—“*Both* natural philosophy and chemistry are useful.”

5. A *subordinate conjunction*.

EXAMPLE.—“I do not know *whether* I shall go or stay.”

558. The subsequent term may be—

1. A *co-ordinate conjunction*.

EXAMPLES.—“Both natural philosophy *and* chemistry are useful.” “I do not know whether I shall go *or* stay.”

2. A *subordinate conjunction*.

EXAMPLE.—“Water is much heavier *than* air.”

3. A *relative pronoun*.

EXAMPLE.—“*Such as* I have, give I thee.” (288 *h*.)

4. A *conjunctive adverb*.

EXAMPLE.—“She did as well *as* I.”

(a) The principal *correlatives* are—

As (adv.)—*as*¹ (conj. adv.); *so* (adv.)—*as*¹ (conj. adv.); *so* (adv.)—*that* (sub. conj.); *both*² (adv.)—*and* (co-or. conj.); *either*³ (adv.)—*or*³ (co-or. conj.); *more* (adv.)—*than*⁴ (sub. conj.); *though* (sub. conj.)—*yet* (adv.); *not* (adv.) *only* (adv.)—*but* (co-or. conj.) *also* (adv.), or *not only* (co-or. conj.)—*but also* (co-or. conj.); *such* (adj. or pro.)—*as* (rel. pro.); *the* (conj. adv.)—*the* (adv.); *neither*³ (adv.)—*nor*³ (co-or. conj.); *whether* (sub. conj.)—*or* (co-or. conj.).

1. 488, 2. In “He did as well as I,” the first *as* modifies *well*; the second *as* modifies *well* understood, and joins the clause *as I (did well) to well*. 2. The correlatives *both*, *either*, and *neither* are adverbs of emphasis, modifying the two parts of the sentence joined by the conjunctions that follow them. They are usually called conjunctions. 3. Poets sometimes use *or-or* instead of *either-or*, and *nor*

—*nor* instead of *neither—nor*. 4. *Than* is generally used as the correlative of an adjective or an adverb in the comparative degree.

Rules of Construction.

559. Rule 18. A *co-ordinate conjunction* is used to join sentences, or parts of a sentence that have the same construction.

(a) **Special Rule 18.** A *co-ordinate conjunction* is sometimes used simply to introduce a sentence.

(b) **Special Rule 19.** The co-ordinate conjunction *or* is sometimes used to join an appositive noun to the word that it modifies ; as, "A sovereign, or supreme *governor*, rules in England."

560. Rule 12. A *subordinate conjunctive* is used to introduce a clause, and join it to the word that the clause modifies. (371.)

(a) **Special Rule 7.** A *subordinate conjunctive* is sometimes used simply to introduce a clause. (371, a.)

The rules for subordinate conjunctives apply to subordinate conjunctions.

(b) **Special Rule 20.** The subordinate conjunction *as* is sometimes used to introduce a word or a phrase ; as, "A noun is a word used as a name ; as, *Rome*."

PARSING.

561. FORMS OF PARSING.

1. Money is made for the comfort and convenience of animal life.—*Burke*.

ORAL PARSING.

And is a co-ordinate conjunction. It is used to join *comfort* and *convenience*.

WRITTEN PARSING.

and
cc
com & con

2. Mr. Smith, as well as his friends, was deceived.

ORAL PARSING.

As well as is a co-ordinate conjunction. It is used to join *Mr. Smith was deceived* and *his friends were deceived*, the predicate of the second member being understood.

WRITTEN PARSING.

as well as
cc
1 m & 2 m

3. But grief, even in a child, hates the light, and shrinks from human eyes.—*De Quincey*.

ORAL PARSING.

WRITTEN PARSING.

But is a co-ordinate conjunction. It is used to introduce the sentence, *But grief hates*, etc.

But
c o
in sen

4. If we wish to know the force of human genius, we should read Shakespeare.—*Hazlitt*.

ORAL PARSING.

WRITTEN PARSING.

If is a subordinate conjunction. It is used to introduce the clause *If we wish*, etc., and join it to *should read*.

If
s o
in cl
should read

5. That that is false, is true.

ORAL PARSING.

WRITTEN PARSING.

That is a subordinate conjunction. It is used to introduce the clause *That that is false*.

That
s o
in cl

EXERCISE.

562. Parse the conjunctions in the following sentences :

1. "Twixt Want and Scorn she walked forlorn,
And nothing could avail.—*Willis*.
2. The "Battle of the Spurs" and the "Battle of Flodden Field" were fought on the same day. 3. And then came the thought of all his old school-fellows.—*Hughes*.
4. Sleep shall neither night nor day
Hang upon his pent-house lid.—*Shak*.
5. But in asking a question, we are accustomed to use *shall* or *will*, according as the one or the other is to be used in reply.—*Whitney*.
6. Do you know whether the velocity of light has been accurately determined or not? 7. He spoke and acted as if his life depended on the result. 8. Because salt water has a greater lifting capacity than fresh water, a person can rest on the Dead Sea as comfortably as if reclining on a spring mattress. 9. Why does a leaf fall more slowly than an apple or a nut?
10. My heart aches, and a drowsy numbness pains
My sense, as though of hemlock I had drunk;
Or emptied some dull opiate to the drains
One minute past, and Lethe-ward had sunk.—*Keats*.

ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

(a) **Analyze** the foregoing sentences (562), and **parse** all the words contained in them.

ERRORS TO BE CORRECTED.

(b) **Correct** the following **errors**. (One sentence is correct.)

1. I will not go without you stay.

ORAL CORRECTION.

WRITTEN CORRECTION.

This is incorrect. The preposition *without* is used to introduce a clause. In its place *unless* should be used, and the sentence should be, *I will not go unless you stay.*

2. I will see if it rains or no. 3. I have no doubt but that he is right. 4. O fairest flower, no sooner blown but blasted! 5. Ye shall not worship any other except God. 6. I am neither an ascetic in theory or practice. 7. They are not only offensive, but also repulsive. 8. His mission was to prepare the Jews for the reception of a prophet mightier than him, and whose shoes he was not worthy to bear. 9. About the time of Solon, the custom is said to have been introduced, and which still prevails, of writing from left to right. 10. He is neither disposed to sanction bloodshed nor deceit.

563. Review the remarks and exercises that are numbered.

RESPONSIVES.

564. A Responsive is the word *yes, yea, ay, no, nay, or amen*, used to reply or respond to a question or a petition.

CLASSES OF RESPONSIVES.

Inductive Lesson.—1. Is Autumn dying? Yes. 2. Do you expect him? No.

QUESTIONS.—Which words are *responsives* in the foregoing sentences? Which one is *affirmative*? Which is *negative*?

565. Responsives are of two classes: *Affirmative Responsives* and *Negative Responsives*.

566. **Affirmative Responsives** express affirmation. They are *yes*, *yea*, *ay*, and *amen*.

567. **Negative Responsives** express negation. They are *no* and *nay*.

Rule.

568. **Rule 19.** A *responsive* is used independently.

PARSING.

569. **Parse** the following *responsives*:

1. Will you go? Yes.

ORAL PARSING.

Yes is an affirmative responsive. It is used independently.

WRITTEN PARSING.

Yes
or
ind

2. No, he did not succeed. 3. "Yes, I saw him," she said, softly.

INTERJECTIONS.

570. An **Interjection** is a word used simply to express a sudden feeling or to call attention.

CLASSES OF INTERJECTIONS.

Inductive Lesson.—1. Alas, poor Yorick! 2. Hurrah! the work is done. 3. Pshaw!

QUESTIONS.—Which of the foregoing interjections expresses *pity*? *Joy*? *Contempt*?

571. The following are the *chief classes* of interjections :

1. **Pity.** *Alas! oh! ah! welladay!* etc.
2. **Joy.** *Hurrah! good! bravo!* etc.
3. **Laughter.** *Ha, ha! he, he!* etc.
4. **Surprise.** *Ha! what! heigh! indeed! oh! la! zounds!* etc.
5. **Contempt.** *Pshaw! pish! pooh! fie! bah!* etc.
6. **Silence.** *Hush! hish! 'st! mum!* etc.
7. **Interrogating.** *Eh?* etc.
8. **Saluting or parting.** *Welcome! hail! adieu! good-by!* (and perhaps *good-morning! good-night!*) etc.

(a) Words from other parts of speech, and groups of words, when used simply to express a sudden feeling, become **interjections**; as, *Nonsense! behold! strange! indeed! thunder and lightning!*

(b) Imitative words, and words used in speaking to inferior animals, are generally called **interjections**; as, *Patter, patter! whoa! gee! scat!*

Rule.

572. **Rule 20.** An *interjection* is used independently.

PARSING.

573. **Parse the following interjections:**

1. "O stay!" the maiden said.—*Longfellow.*

ORAL PARSING.

O is an interjection of address. It is used independently.

WRITTEN PARSING.

O
i ad
ind

2. Ah, well! for us all some sweet hope lies
Deeply buried from human eyes.—*Whittier.*
3. O sleep! it is a gentle thing.—*Coleridge.* 4. Lickety, lickety,
switch, we came to the ford.—*Bret Harte.*
5. O Jones, my dear!—O dear! my Jones,
What is become of you?—*Hood.*

MISCELLANEOUS EXAMPLES FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

1. Call imperfection what thou fanciest such. 2. Fall he that must, and live the rest.

3. Triumphal Arch, that fill'st the sky

When storms prepare to part,

I ask not proud Philosophy

To teach me what thou art.—*Campbell*.

4. He that is slow to anger is better than the mighty ; and he that ruleth his spirit, than he that taketh a city.—*Prov. xvi, 32*.

5. His praise, ye winds that from four quarters blow,

Breathe soft or loud ; and wave your tops, ye pines,

With every plant, in sign of worship wave.

Fountains, and ye that warble as ye flow

Melodious murmurs, warbling, tune his praise.—*Milton*.

6. Whatsoever ye shall ask in my name, that will I do, that the Father may be glorified in the Son.—*John xiv, 13*.

7. The king throughout his broad domain

Finds none that may dispute his reign

Except the queen ; her subject he ;

And she to no one bends the knee

Except the baby ; it alone

Remains the power behind the throne.

8. And Paul said, I would to God, that not only thou, but also all that hear me this day, were both almost, and altogether such as I am, except these bonds.—*Acts xxvi, 29*.

9. Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight,

And all the air a solemn stillness holds,

Save where the beetle wheels his droning flight,

And drowsy tinklings lull the distant folds ;

Save that, from yonder ivy-mantled tower,

The moping owl does to the moon complain

Of such as, wand'ring near her secret bower,

Molest her ancient, solitary reign.—*Gray*.

10. I know not whether an orator ought not to be thought happiest at that period of his life when, sequestered from the world, devoted to retired study, unmolested by envy, and remote from strife, he has placed his reputation in a harbor of safety, experienc-

ing while yet alive that respect which is more commonly offered after death, and observing how his character will be regarded by posterity.—*Quintilian*.

11. Sweet are the uses of adversity,
Which, like the toad, ugly and venomous,
Wears yet a precious jewel in his head ;
And this our life, exempt from public haunt,
Finds tongues in trees, books in the running brooks,
Sermons in stones, and good in everything.—*Shak.*

12. Whoso suffers nothing more than the evil which obviously follows naturally from his own misbehavior, is much less likely to think himself wrongly treated than if he suffers an evil artificially inflicted on him ; and this will be true of children as of men.—*Spencer*.

13. Be thou faithful unto death, and I will give thee a crown of life.—*Rev. ii, 10.* 14. He giveth his beloved sleep.—*Ps. cxviii, 2.*

15. So live, that when thy summons comes to join
The innumerable caravan, which moves
To that mysterious realm, where each shall take
His chamber in the silent halls of death,
Thou go not, like the quarry-slave at night,
Scourged to his dungeon, but, sustained and soothed
By an unfaltering trust, approach thy grave
Like one who wraps the drapery of his couch
About him, and lies down to pleasant dreams.—*Bryant*.

16. Though I speak with the tongues of men and of angels, and have not charity, I am become as sounding brass, or a tinkling cymbal. And though I have the gift of prophecy, and understand all mysteries, and all knowledge ; and though I have all faith, so that I could remove mountains, and have not charity, I am nothing. And though I bestow all my goods to feed the poor, and though I give my body to be burned, and have not charity, it profiteth me nothing.—*1 Cor. xiii, 1-3.*

17. How tremble the trees as they burst on my view !
How moans the old house as the wind passes through,
In sadness, in sorrow, with sighing !
How chill is the desolate, shadowy day !
How fast fly the clouds, in their armor of gray,
To herald that Autumn is dying !

MISCELLANEOUS NOTES.

[FOR REFERENCE.]

A, An. "*A* man"; "*An* owl"; *adj.* "It cost ten cents *a* yard"; "ten cents *an* ounce"; *prep.*, 543. "Catch me *an* thou canst"; *sub. conj.*

Above. "The clouds *above* us"; *prep.* "The clouds *above*"; "The *above* remarks"; *adj.* "They float *above*"; *adv.*

Adjective Forms. In poetry, the adjective form of a word is frequently used as an adverb; as, "The swallow sings *sweet* from her nest in the wall."

After. "He left *after* her"; *prep.* "He left soon *after*"; *adv.* "He left *after* she came"; *conj. adv.*

Ago. "She died eleven years *ago*"; *adv.* "He staid till a few minutes *ago*"; *obj. of till.* (*Minutes, a. o. of ago.*)

All. "*All* men"; "*All* the boys"; *adj.* "They *all* came"; "They are *all* here"; *adj. pro.* "This is his *all*"; *noun.* "She is *all* alone"; "*All* heart they live."—*Milton; adv.*

All, any, enough, more, most, no, and some, generally relate to quantity when used with or instead of a singular noun, and to number when used with or instead of a plural noun.

Any. "*Any* one"; *adj.* "*Any* of us"; *pro.* "Is he *any* worse?" *adv.*

As. "It is *as* cold as ice"; *adv.* "*As* cold *as* ice"; "He came *as* I left"; "Do *as* I do"; *conj. adv.* "*As* he has come, I shall go"; "His appointment *as* clerk"; *sub. conj.* "Such *as* I have," etc.; *rel. pro.* "He walks *as if* he were tired"; *part of sub. conj.* "*As to that,*" etc.; *part of prep.* "He, *as well as* I," etc.; *part of co-or. conj.*

As, in "His appointment *as* clerk," "He went out *as* mate," etc., is generally called a "conjunction denoting apposition." It seems proper to say that *as clerk* is a conjunctive phrase modifying *appointment*, to which it is joined by *as*, and *clerk* is used in apposition with *his* (336). So also, the conjunctive phrase *as mate* may be said to modify *went*, *mate* being also a modifier of *he*.

As follows may be construed as a phrase-adverb (484 *d*). Probably, *as* is the subject of the verb in *as appears*, *as concerns*, and *as regards*. (Some grammarians supply *it*.)

Before. "They went *before*"; *adv.* "Go *before* him"; *prep.* "He came *before* I left"; *conj. adv.*

Below. "The plain *below* us"; *prep.* "The plain *below*"; *adj.* "They went *below*"; *adv.* "They came from *below*"; *noun.* So *beneath*.

But. "I go, *but* I return"; *co-or. conj.* "Nothing *but* leaves"; "I can *but* die"; *adv.* "All *but* him had gone"; *prep.* "There is no flock, however watched or tended, *But* one dead lamb is there"; *sub. conj.* "There is no fireside, howsoever defended, *But* has one vacant chair"; *rel. pro.* (288 *d*). "*But for this,*" etc.; *part of prep.*

Ellipsis. "It is more [*feet high*] than [*it is*] six feet high." "He is more than [*he is*] wise." "It [*did*] more than [*it*] pleased him." "He is firm, but kind as well" [*as firm*]. "I would rather go than [*I would*] stay." "Let me [*be*] alone." "He came; I know not why" [*he came*]. "They fought courageously, but [*they did*] not [*fight*] cautiously." (Or say, *not* modifies *cautiously*.) "The moon, as well as the stars [*are shining*], is shining." "He came so as to be ready" (abridged from "He so came as he would come to be ready"). Better, *so as* is a subordinate conjunction. "I know not what to do." *What to do* may be called an elliptical, abridged clause, the subject being omitted. It is the direct object of *know*. So also, "I know not *where to go*," etc.

1. Or, *more than wise* is an adjective. 2. Or, *more than pleased* is a verb.

Else. "Any one *else*"; "Nobody *else*"; *adj.* "How *else* can he go?" "Come, [*or*] *else* I shall go"; *adv.*

Enough. "I have *enough*"; *noun.* "Men *enough*"; *adj.* "Old *enough*"; *adv.*

Expletives. *It*, the preparatory pronoun (281 b, 2), and *there*, the adverb of position (487, 10), are frequently called *expletives*.

Farewell. "A last *farewell*"; *noun.* "A *farewell* address"; *adj.* "*Farewell!*" *int.*

Full. "It is *full*"; "The *full* moon"; *adj.* "*Full* many a gem"; *adv.*

Gender. The words *uncle* and *aunt* are remotely connected; as also are *nephew* and *niece*, *lord* and *lady*, etc. *Countess* is the feminine of *count*, the French name for *earl*. *Man*, in Anglo-Saxon, was in the common gender; *woman* was "wife-man," or "weft-man," that is, the man that weaves. *Girl* was originally in the common gender, being derived from a Saxon word signifying "a little churl." In Anglo-Saxon, *a* was a masculine suffix, and *e* a feminine suffix (*nefa*, *nefe* = nephew, niece).

"Grammar concerns the forms of words and their dependent relations in the sentence."—*Richard Grant White* ("Every-Day English," page 268).

Hard. "It is *hard*"; "*Hard* work"; *adj.* "She studies *hard*"; *adv.* "*Hard* by yon brook"; *adv.*, modifying *by brook*.

However. "*However* strong"; *adv.* "*However*, I shall not go"; *conj.*

Infinitives. "I am to go"; "He appears to be sick"; *vt., adj.* "I have to go"; *vt., d. o.* "He ordered the men to go" may mean "He gave orders to the men to go," or "He gave orders that the men should go."

Like. "*Like* begets *like*"; *noun.* "I *like* honesty"; *verb.* "Another day *like* this," etc.; "He is *like* a fox"; *adj.* "It sings *like* a nightingale"; *adv.*

Modifying Elements. The modifying elements of a sentence (106) may be divided into *substantive elements* (22), *adjective elements*, and *adverbial elements*.

More. "*More* money"; *adj.* "There is some *more* wine in the bottle"

(*adj.* = additional). "The *more* part" (*adj.* = greater). "Say no *more*"; *adj. pro.* "Strive no *more*"; *adv.*, or *a. o.*

In "some *more* pudding," Abbott calls *more* an adverb = *besides*. Some *more* pudding = some pudding *more*.

Near. "The *near* approach of day"; "It is *near*"; "It is *near* me"; "The man *near* me"; *adj.* "Remain *near*"; "Remain *near* me"; *adv.* "The ship *near*s the land"; *verb.*

Nearly. "We went *nearly* through the cave"; *adv.*, modifying the phrase *through cave*. So also, *just* in "It was seen just below the falls"; *only* in "Some birds sing only in the evening," etc.

Some grammarians say that *nearly* and *just* modify the prepositions by which they are followed.

Needs. "His *needs* are great"; *noun.* "He *needs* me"; "He *needs* to go"; *verb.* "He must *needs* go"; *adv.*

Only. "The *only* man"; *adj.* "The man *only*"; "I sing *only*"; *adv.*

Subject and Predicate. The term *grammatical subject* is sometimes applied to the subject of a sentence, and *logical subject* to the subject with its modifiers. The terms *grammatical predicate* and *logical predicate* are used in the same way.

That. "Come we *that* love the Lord"; *rel. pro.* "*That* is mine"; *adj. pro.* "*That* book is mine"; *pron. adj.* "I know *that* my Redeemer liveth"; *sub. conj.*

Twofold Use of Words. Some words have a twofold use, being modified as one part of speech and used in construction as another. Thus, in "A green stone building," *stone* is a noun used as an adjective. As a noun it is modified by the adjective *green*; as an adjective, it modifies the noun *building*. Other examples are found in "A *hundred* men" (464 *f*, note); "Last *Saturday* evening"; "Lower *California* gold"; "Cast *iron* railings," etc.

The. "The men"; *adj.* "The (*conj. adv.*) more busy we are, the (*adv.*) more leisure we have."—*Hazlitt*.

Till. "Remain *till* to-morrow"; *prep.* "Remain *till* I return"; *conj. adv.* "Remain *till* then"; *prep.*, with *then* as its object.

What. "What am I?" *int. pro.* "What books has he?" *int. adj.* "What wonders I see!" *excl. adj.* "Return *what* you borrow"; *conj. pro.* "I know *what* books he has"; *conj. adj.* "What [partly] with threats and what with entreaty, I succeeded"; *adv.* "What! am I your slave?" *int.* "What should I stay?"—*Shak.*; *adv.* (= why). "What you have spoke it may be so perchance"—*Shak.*; probably a *rel. pro.* (ant., *it*).

While. "Remain a *while*"; "It is not worth *while*"; *noun.* "We *while* away the hour"; *verb.* "Listen *while* she sings"; *conj. adv.*

Worth. "Slow rises *worth*," etc.; *noun.* "Woe *worth* the day"; *verb* (A.-S. *weorthan* = to become). "It is *worth* a dollar"; "To reign is *worth* ambition"; *adj.*

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

[The references are to paragraphs, except where the page is indicated.]

Part I.—Elements of Speech.

1. What is language? (72.) 2. What is a sentence? (18.) 3. What is a part of speech? (73.) 4. How do we determine the part of speech to which a word belongs? (75.) 5. How many parts of speech are there? (74.) 6. What word is used in grammar instead of "part of speech"? (75, note.) 7. What is a noun? (1.) 8. A pronoun? (21.) 9. A verb? (25.) 10. What is meant by the subject of a verb? (27.) 11. The subject of a sentence? (28.) 12. The predicate of a sentence? (28.) 13. What is a modifier? (35.) 14. An adjective? (37.) 15. An adverb? (41.) 16. A phrase? (45.) 17. A preposition? (47.) 18. The object of a preposition? (49.) 19. A conjunction? (51.) 20. A co-ordinate conjunction? (52.) 21. A clause? (56.) 22. A subordinate conjunction? (58.) 23. A verbal? (62.) 24. A responsive? (66.) 25. An interjection? (68.)

26. What is grammar? (78.) 27. What is meant by the relation of words? (78, note.) 28. How is the relation of words indicated? (78, note.) 29. What determines the form of a word? (78, note.) 30. Its position? (78, note.) 31. What are the leading logical divisions of grammar? (78, note.) 32. What is etymology? (78, note.) 33. Syntax? (78, note.) 34. Why should grammar be studied?

Part II.—Elements and Analysis of Sentences.

1. How are sentences classed, according to their form? (93.) 2. Define each class. (94, 95, 96.) 3. What is a member of a sentence? (97.) 4. What is a contracted compound sentence? (97 a.) 5. A partial compound sentence? (97 b.) 6. How are sentences classed, according to their use? (99.) 7. Define each class. (100, 101, 102.) 8. What is an exclamatory sentence? (102 a.) 9. What is analysis? (104.) 10. What are the elements of a sentence? (105.) 11. Into what three classes may the elements of a sentence be divided, according to their form? (105.) 12. How are they classed, according to their use? (106.) 13. How may nouns and pronouns be used in sentences? (107, 111, 115, 121, 125, 128, 131, 136, 140, 146, 151, 154, 157.) 14. What is a complement? (119.) 15. What is the difference between an appositive noun and a predicate noun? 16. Between a subjective and an objective predicate noun? 17. In what are they alike? 18. How many classes of objects are there? 19. How may the direct object be found? (133.) 20. The indirect object? (142, 148.) 21. What is the difference between a noun used absolutely and one used independently? 22. Why should not possessive nouns and pronouns be called adjective elements?

23. How may adjectives be used in sentences? (159, 160, 164, 167, 170.) 24. What is the difference between a subjective and an objective predicate adjective? 25. In what are they alike? 26. How do predicate nouns and predicate adjectives differ? 27. In what are they alike?

28. How may adverbs be used? (173, 174, 177.) 29. Verbals? (180, 182, 184.) 30. Co-ordinate conjunctions? (186, 188.) 31. Prepositions? (190.) 32. What parts of speech may be used to introduce clauses? (197.) 33. How may clauses be used? (203, 205, 207.) 34. How many essential elements has an unabridged clause? (209.) 35. An abridged clause? (210.)

Part III.—Position of the Parts of Speech.

1. What is meant by the natural position of words? (p. 61.) 2. When are words said to be transposed? (p. 61.) 3. Why are words transposed? (p. 61.) 4. What is the natural position of the subject in declarative sentences? (216.) 5. In interrogative sentences? (217.) 6. In imperative sentences? (218.) 7. When may the subject be transposed? (218 b.) 8. What is the natural position of a possessive noun or pronoun? (219.) 9. An appositive noun? (220.) 10. The complement of a verb? (221.) 11. A predicate noun or pronoun? (222.) 12. Direct objects? (223.) 13. Indirect objects? (223.) 14. Adverbial objects? (224, 225.) 15. When does the object of a preposition precede it? (226 a.) 16. When a verb has two objects, in what order are they usually placed? (227.) 17. Three? (227.) 18. Which should be mentioned first, the speaker or the person spoken to? (228.)

19. What is the natural position of adjectives? (232.) 20. Of adjectives that express number? (233.) 21. How are adjectives of unequal rank arranged? (233 a.) 22. Adjectives of equal rank? (233 b.) 23. When may adjectives be transposed? (233 c.) 24. What is the rule for the position of adverbs? (237.) 25. What is the place of adverbs that modify verbs? (238.) 26. Of *there*, the adverb of position? (239.) 27. Of adverbs that modify adjectives and adverbs? (241.) 28. Of adverbs of emphasis? (242.) 29. Of the adverb *only*? (242 a.)

30. What is the usual place of verbals? (247-249.) 31. Of prepositions? (250.) 32. When the object of a preposition is a relative pronoun, where is the preposition placed? (251.) 33. Where are co-ordinate conjunctions usually placed? (252.) 34. Subordinate conjunctions? (253.) 35. How should the parts of a sentence containing *both—and* be arranged? (254.) 36. What other groups of words require the same arrangement? (254.)

37. Where should phrases and clauses used as nouns be placed? (256.) 38. Phrases and clauses used as adjectives? (257.) 39. Phrases and clauses used as adverbs? (258.) 40. What is the general rule for the position of phrases and clauses? (259.)

Part IV.—Classes and Properties of the Parts of Speech.

1. What is a property of a part of speech? (266.) 2. What is inflection? (267.) 3. How may parts of speech be inflected? (268.) 4. What parts of speech are inflected? (268 a.) 5. What is the inflection of nouns called? (268 a.) 6. Of pronouns? (268 a.) 7. Of verbs? (268 a.) 8. Of verbals? (268 b.) 9. Of adjectives? (268 a.) 10. Of adverbs? (268 a.) 11. What parts of speech are not inflected? (268 b.) 12. How can the number of prop-

erties of a part of speech be told? 13. What is the difference between the classes of a part of speech and its properties? 14. Of what use in grammar are the rules for spelling? (269.) 15. What are the rules for final *e*? (269, 1, 2.) 16. Final *y*? (269, 3, 4.) 17. The final consonant? (269, 5, 6.) 18. Can you recall any exceptions to these six rules?

Nouns and Pronouns.

1. What are sometimes used as nouns? (270 *a, b*.) 2. What are the chief classes of nouns? (271.) 3. What is a proper noun? (272.) 4. A common noun? (273.) 5. When does a proper noun become a common noun? (274 *a*.) 6. When does a common noun become a proper noun? (274 *b*.) 7. What is a collective noun? (274 *d*.) 8. An abstract noun? (274 *e*.)

9. For what may pronouns be used? (276, 276 *a*.) 10. What is meant by the antecedent of a pronoun? (277.) 11. How are pronouns classed? (278.) 12. What is a personal pronoun? (279.) 13. Which are the personal pronouns? (280.) 14. What is a compound personal pronoun? (281.) 15. How are compound personal pronouns used? (281 *a*.) 16. How is the pronoun *it* sometimes used? (281 *b*.) 17. Explain the use of *thou*. (281 *c*.) 18. What words are in the old or solemn style? (281 *d*.) 19. What caution must be observed in using these words? (281 *d*.) 20. What is an interrogative pronoun? (282.) 21. Which are the interrogative pronouns? (283.) 22. How is *who* used? (283 *a*.) 23. *Which*? (283 *b*.) 24. *What*? (283 *b*.) 25. What is the difference between *which* and *what*? (283, note.) 26. What is a conjunctive pronoun? (284.) 27. A relative pronoun? (285.) 28. Which are the conjunctive pronouns? (286.) 29. What is a compound conjunctive pronoun? (287.) 30. Which pronouns may be used as ordinary conjunctives and as relatives? (288.) 31. As conjunctives only? (288.) 32. As relatives only? (288.) 33. How does a relative pronoun differ from an ordinary conjunctive pronoun? (288, note.) 34. In what are they alike? (288, note.) 35. How is *who* used? (288 *a*.) 36. The conjunctive *which*? (288 *b*.) 37. The relative *which*? (288 *b*.) 38. The conjunctive *what*? (288 *c*.) 39. The relative *that*? (288 *d*.) 40. When is *that* preferred to *who* or *which*? (288 *e*.) 41. *Who* or *which* to *that*? (288 *f*.) 42. When may *as* be called a relative pronoun? (288 *h*.) 43. *But*? (288 *i*.) 44. What is an adjective pronoun? (289.) 45. Which are the common adjective pronouns? (290.) 46. How many objects are implied when *each* is used? (290 *a*.) 47. *Either* and *neither*? (290 *b*.) 48. How should *this* and *that* be used? (290 *c*.) 49. *One* and *other*? (290 *d*.) 50. *Each other* and *one another*? (290 *e*.) 51. What is the difference between a noun and a pronoun, and in what are they alike?

52. What are the properties of nouns and pronouns? (292.) 53. What is gender? (293.) 54. How many genders are there? (294.) 55. How is the gender of a noun or a pronoun determined? (295-298.) 56. What do nouns and pronouns in the masculine gender sometimes represent? (298 *a*.) 57. In the feminine gender? (298 *a*.) 58. How is the gender of a collective noun determined? (298 *b*.) 59. In what gender are the nouns and pronouns representing children and small animals sometimes used? (298 *c*.) 60. In how many genders may the noun *child* be used? (298 *d*.) 61. What is the gender

of personified nouns? (298 *a.*) 62. How are words changed to distinguish the two sexes? (299.) 63. What nouns and pronouns do not, strictly speaking, have grammatical gender? (298, note.)

64. What is person? (307.) 65. How many persons are there? (308.) 66. How is the person of a noun or a pronoun determined? (309-311.) 67. Why are nouns not used in the first person? (311, note.)

68. What is number? (313.) 69. How many numbers are there? 70. How is the number of a noun or a pronoun determined? (315, 316.) 71. What is the general rule for forming the plural number of nouns? (317.) 72. What classes of nouns add *es*? (318.) 73. What nouns add *s*? (319.) 74. How are letters, figures, and signs made plural? (320.) 75. Mention some nouns that are said to form their plurals irregularly. (325.) 76. Some nouns that have two plurals. (325 *a.*) 77. Some nouns that have the same form for both numbers. (325 *b.*) 78. How are proper nouns made plural? (326.) 79. Complex proper nouns? (326 *a.*) 80. Compound nouns? (327.) 81. What nouns are used in the singular number only? (327 *d.*) 82. Mention some nouns used in the plural number only. (327 *e.*) 83. How may collective nouns be used? (327 *f.*) 84. Mention some foreign nouns that have two plural forms. (327 *g.*) 85. Some that retain their original plural forms. (327 *h.*) 86. What pronouns have irregular plural forms? (328.) 87. What is the number of *you*, *your*, and *yours*? (328 *a.*) 88. What classes of pronouns have the same form for both numbers? (328 *b.*) 89. How are adjective pronouns made plural? (328 *c.*) 90. Why do nouns and pronouns have only two numbers?

91. What is case? (329.) 92. How many cases are there? (330.) 93. In how many ways may nouns and pronouns in the nominative case be used? (331, 332, 334.) 94. In what ways may a noun or a pronoun be used independently? (333.) 95. Absolutely? (335.) 96. Repeat the rules for the nominative case. (331, 332, 334.) 97. When is a noun or a pronoun in the possessive case? (338.) 98. What does the term "possessive" include? (338 *a.*) 99. How is the possessive case of singular nouns formed? (339.) 100. Of plural nouns? (340.) 101. Of compound nouns? (340 *a.*) 102. Of two or more nouns denoting common possession? (340 *b.*) 103. Where should the possessive sign be placed? (340 *c.*) 104. What pronouns have irregular possessive forms? (341.) 105. No possessive forms? (341 *a.*) 106. Two possessive forms? (341 *b.*) 107. Repeat the rule for the possessive case. (338.) The special rule. (338 *b.*) 108. What pronouns have distinct objective forms? (347.) 109. In how many ways may nouns and pronouns in the objective case be used? (348, 349, 350, 351.) 110. What are cognate objects? (348 *a.*) 111. Repeat the rules for the objective case. (348, 349, 350, 351.) The special rules. (332 *a.*, 348 *b.*) 112. When is a noun or a pronoun in predication with another? (354, 1.) 113. In apposition? (354, 2.) 114. How is the case of predicate and appositive nouns determined? (355, 356.) 115. Repeat the rules for predication and apposition. (355, 356.) 116. The special rules. (356 *a.*, *b.*) 117. What is the rule for the agreement of a pronoun with its antecedent? (359.) 118. The special rule? (359 *a.*) 119. What is declension? (361.) 120. What is the rule for subordinate conjunctives? (371.) 121. The special rule? (371 *a.*) 122. What is parsing? (373.)

Verbs.

1. What forms of the verb are called its principal parts? (383.) 2. What do these forms represent? (383.) 3. Why are they called principal parts? (383, note.) 4. How are verbs classed, according to their form? (384.) 5. What is a regular verb? (385.) 6. An irregular verb? (386.) 7. A redundant verb? (386 a.) 8. A defective verb? (386 b.) 9. Why is not a list of regular verbs given in text-books on grammar? 10. How are verbs classed, as related to subjects? (389.) 11. Define each class. (390, 391.) 12. How is each class used? (391 a, b.) 13. How are verbs classed, as related to objects? (393.) 14. Define each class. (394, 395.) 15. Are the verbs *study*, *strike*, *run*, and *march* transitive or intransitive? (395 a, b.)

16. What are the properties of verbs? (397.) 17. Which are the auxiliary verbs? (398.) 18. Why are they so called? (398.) 19. What are the variations of *be*? (398, note.) 20. What is voice? (399.) 21. How many voices are there? (400.) 22. How is the voice of a verb determined? (401, 402.) 23. Why do not intransitive verbs have voice? (402, note.) 24. What becomes the subject of the verb in the passive voice? (403.) 25. Of what does the passive-voice form consist? (404.) 26. What are the tests for the passive voice? (404, note.) 27. For what is the passive voice chiefly used? (404 b.) 28. Which is made the subject of the passive verb, the direct or the indirect object? (404 d, e.) 29. What is the verb in "He was sent for"? (404 f.)

30. What is mood? (407.) 31. How many moods are there? (408.) 32. Which belong to finite verbs? (409.) 33. Which to non-finite verbs? (409.) 34. How is the mood of a finite verb determined? (410-416.) 35. Which moods may be used interrogatively? (411, 415.) 36. What is the difference between the indicative and the subjunctive mood? 37. What conjunctions generally precede the subjunctive mood? (412 c.) 38. In what person is the subject of a verb in the imperative mood? (417, 417 b.) 39. How is the mood of a non-finite verb determined? (418, 419.) 40. What may be called the sign of the infinitive mood? (418 a.) 41. When is it not used? (418 b.) 42. Of what is a verb in the infinitive mood the predicate? (418 c.) 43. The participial mood? (419 a, b.)

44. What is tense? (422.) 45. How many tenses are there? (423.) 46. What tenses may be expressed by a single word? (424.) 47. What is the sign of the present-perfect tense? (425.) 48. The past-perfect? (425.) 49. The future? (426.) 50. The future-perfect? (426, 425.) 51. How is the tense of a verb determined? (427-432.) 52. In what tense should general truths be expressed? (433, 1.) 53. What tenses has each mood? (434, 435.) 54. What are the forms of a tense? (438 a.) 55. How is the form of a tense determined? (438 b-f.)

56. What are the person and number of a finite verb? (439.) 57. What verbs have the same form in the plural number as in the first person singular? (439 a.) 58. In the second person singular as in the first? (439 b.) 59. In the old style, what does the verb end with? (439 c.) 60. Why do non-finite verbs have no person and number? (439 c, note.) 61. Repeat the rules for verbs. (440, 441.) 62. The special rules. (440 a-d.) 63. What are the rules

for the use of *shall* and *will*? (444, 445.) 64. *Should* and *would*? (446.) 65. What is conjugation? (447.) 66. Synopsis? (447 a.)

Adjectives.

1. Into what chief classes are adjectives divided? (459.) 2. Define each class. (460, 461.) 3. Mention and define the smaller classes of descriptive adjectives. (462.) 4. Of definitive adjectives. (463.) 5. Which are the interrogative adjectives? (464.) 6. The conjunctive adjectives? (464.) 7. What is the difference between an adjective pronoun and a pronominal adjective? 8. When should the adjective *this* be used? (464 a, b.) 9. *A* or *an*? (464 c-f.) 10. What is the difference in the use of *a* and *an*? (464 d.) 11. When are *this* and *a* or *an* omitted? (464 i.)

12. What is comparison? (466.) 13. How many degrees of comparison are there? (467.) 14. How is the degree of comparison of an adjective determined? (468-470.) 15. How many objects are compared when the comparative degree is used? (469 a.) 16. The superlative degree? (470 a.) 17. When should *other* be used after *than*? (469 b.) 18. What adjectives are not compared? (470 d.) 19. How is the positive degree sometimes diminished? (470 f.) 20. How is the comparative degree regularly formed? (471.) 21. The superlative? (472.) 22. When do we add *er* and *est*? (473.) 23. *More* and *most*? (474.) 24. *Less* and *least*? (475.) 25. How are compound adjectives compared? (475 a.) 26. Mention some adjectives that are compared irregularly. (476.)

27. What is meant by the number of an adjective? (478.) 28. What adjectives have number? (479.) 29. Repeat the rule of construction for adjectives. (480.) 30. The special rule. (480 a.)

Adverbs.

1. When do adverbs become verbs? (484 b.) 2. What words may be used either as adjectives or as adverbs? (484 c.) 3. How can we tell when *like* is an adjective or an adverb? (484 c, note.) 4. What are phrase-adverbs? (484 d.) 5. When should an adverb be used, and when an adjective? (485, 1.) 6. Should two negative words be used? (485, 3, 4.) 7. When should *as—as* be used, and when *so—as*? (485, 5.) 8. When should *when* and *where* not be used? (485, 7.) 9. Into what classes are adverbs divided? (487.) 10. How is the class to which an adverb belongs determined? (487, 488.) 11. Which words may be used as interrogative adverbs? (488, 1.) 12. As conjunctive adverbs? (488, 2.) 13. How many degrees of comparison have adverbs? (490.) 14. How are adverbs compared? (491, 492.) 15. Mention some adverbs that are irregularly compared. (498.) 16. Repeat the rule of construction for adverbs. (495.) 17. The special rules. (495 a-c.)

Verbals.

1. How are verbals classed, according to their form? (500.) 2. What is a regular verbal? (501.) 3. An irregular verbal? (502.) 4. How are verbals classed with reference to preceding nouns and pronouns? (504.) 5. What is a definite verbal? (505.) 6. An indefinite verbal? (506.) 7. How are verbals

classed, as related to objects? (508.) 8. What is a transitive verbal? (509.) 9. An intransitive verbal? (510.)

10. What are the properties of verbals? (512.) 11. How many voices have transitive verbals? (513.) 12. How is the voice of a verbal determined? (514, 515.) 13. What does a definite verbal in the active voice show? (515 a.) 14. In the passive voice? (515 b.) 15. Are all transitive verbals definite? 16. Of what does the passive-voice form of a verbal consist? (515 c.)

17. How many forms have verbals? (517.) 18. Of what does a verbal in the infinitive form consist? (518.) 19. In the participial form? (519.)

20. How many tenses have verbals? (522.) 21. How is the tense of a verbal determined? (523-525.) 22. Why should not words expressing desire, expectation, etc., be followed by the perfect infinitive? (525 a.)

23. What properties has a verbal used as a noun? (529.) 24. What is the difference between a participial noun and a participle used as a noun? (529 a.) 25. Between an infinitive and a participial verbal used as a noun? (529 b.) 26. How may verbals used as adjectives be construed? (530.) 27. Verbals used as adverbs? (531.) 28. Repeat the special rule for verbals. (532 a.)

Prepositions and Conjunctions.

1. Define the preposition as a relation-word. (537, note.) 2. How does this definition differ from the first? 3. What relations are shown by the preposition? (537, note.) 4. What may the object of a preposition be? (538 a.) 5. Quote a sentence in which two or more objects are governed by the same preposition. (539.) 6. One in which two or more prepositions have the same object. (539.) 7. When a word usually a preposition has no word to govern, what does it become? (540.) 8. Mention some common prepositions. (543.) 9. Repeat the rule for prepositions. (544.) 10. The special rule. (544 a.)

1. What is the difference between a co-ordinate and a subordinate conjunction? 2. Mention some of the principal co-ordinate conjunctions. (552.) 3. Subordinate conjunctions. (553.) 4. What are correlatives? (556.) 5. What may the antecedent term be? (557.) 6. The subsequent term? (558.) 7. Mention the principal correlatives. (558 a.) 8. Repeat the rules for conjunctions. (559, 560.) 9. The special rules. (559 a, b, 560 a, b.)

Responsives and Interjections.

1. How are responsives classed? (565.) 2. Define each class. (566, 567.) 3. Repeat the rule for responsives. (568.)

1. How are interjections classed? (571.) 2. Mention some interjections of the leading classes. (571.) 3. What words sometimes become interjections? (571 a.) 4. To what part of speech do imitative words generally belong? (571 b.) 5. Words used in speaking to inferior animals? (571 b.) 6. Repeat the rule for interjections. (572.)

PART V.

ELEMENTS OF COMPOSITION.

INTRODUCTION.

1. Composition is the art of expressing thought by means of words combined in sentences.

TO THE TEACHER.—See Appendix, p. 263, Sug. 13.

Exercises like the following should precede the lessons in composition given in this work :

1. Conversation-lessons. These lessons should be (1) on topics with which pupils are familiar, and (2) on topics with which they may become familiar by observation or reading.

2. Copying exercises. Pupils may be required (1) to copy part of their reading-lesson, geography-lesson, etc., and (2) to copy from dictation.

3. Oral and written descriptions of familiar objects and pictures.

4. Exercises in committing and reciting beautiful extracts, poems, etc. These exercises should be continued through the entire course.

Written recitations are an important part of a course in composition, and should not be omitted.

In the "INTRODUCTION" the following subjects are briefly considered:

1. Capital Letters ; 2. Punctuation ; 3. Use of Words ; 4. Use of Sentences ; 5. Figures of Speech.

CAPITAL LETTERS.

2. The following words should begin with **capital letters** :

- 1.** The first word of a sentence.
- 2.** The first word of a line of poetry.
- 3.** The first word of a direct quotation. (7, 6.)

4. Names representing the Deity.

EXAMPLES.—“Trust in *Providence*.” “Thou *Great First Cause*.”

And also, the *Messiah*, the *Son of God*, the *Saviour*, the *Holy Trinity*, etc.

Pronouns representing the Deity are generally capitalized, when used in direct address without an antecedent; as, “O *Thou* that hearest the mourner’s prayer,” etc. But see the *Holy Bible*.

5. Particular names, and words derived from them.

EXAMPLES.—*John Smith*, *France*, *Augustan*, *French*.

We write “*The Red River*,” because both words are needed to form the name, and “*The Ohio river*,” because the word *river* is not part of the name.

6. Titles, and abbreviations of particular names and titles.

EXAMPLE.—*Prof. Jas. W. West*, *A. M.*

Titles like *sir*, *madam*, *your honor*, etc., are usually not capitalized.

7. The names of things regarded as persons.

EXAMPLE.—“Out of the bosom of the *Air*.”

8. The names of the months and of the days of the week.

9. The important words in a heading.

EXAMPLE.—“A song entitled ‘The Last Rose of Summer.’”

10. Words of special importance.

EXAMPLE.—“The *Centennial Exhibition*.”

The names of religious sects and political parties should usually begin with capitals.

11. The pronoun *I* and the interjection *O* should be written with capitals.

EXERCISES.

3. Explain the use of the capitals in your geography-lesson. In your reading-lesson.

4. Copy the following sentences, using capitals where necessary:

1. god might have made the earth bring forth enough for great and small, the oak-tree and the cedar-tree, without a flower at

all.¹—*mary howitt*. 2. carlyle wrote a work entitled “the french revolution.” 3. do you think any one should begin a letter by saying, “i take my pen in hand to let you know that i am well”?

1. A four-line stanza.

PUNCTUATION.

5. **Punctuation** is the art of dividing written composition by means of marks, or points.

“Punctuation is based upon grammatical analysis.”—*Westlake*. “The purpose of every point is to indicate to the eye the construction of the sentence in which it occurs.”—*A. S. Hill*.

6. The **Principal Points** used are the *comma*, the *semi-colon*, the *colon*, the *period*, the *interrogation-point*, the *exclamation-point*, the *dash*, *marks of parenthesis*, *brackets*, and *quotation-marks*.

The Comma (,).

7. The **Comma** is used—

1. Between every two words or phrases of a series of more than two in the same construction.

EXAMPLES.—“Carlyle’s translations of Goethe’s works are *powerful*, *accurate*, and *graceful*.” “God’s spirit is *in us*, *around us*, and *above us*.”

2. Between two words or phrases of equal rank, when the conjunction is omitted.

EXAMPLE.—“*Sober*, *industrious* men are needed.”

3. To set off appositive nouns and adjective clauses that are explanatory, but not restrictive.

EXAMPLES.—“John Bunyan, an illiterate *tinker*, wrote ‘Pilgrim’s Progress,’ the great *allegory*.” “Geoffrey Chaucer, *who is called the father of English poetry*, died in the last year of the fourteenth century.”

4. To set off transposed phrases and clauses.

EXAMPLES.—“*Since the time of Chaucer, there have been only two poets who at all resemble him.*”—*Lander*. “*If Swift's life was the most wretched, I think Addison's was one of the most enviable.*”

5. To set off interposed words, phrases, and clauses.

EXAMPLES.—“It was, *indeed*, of no avail.” “The dervise, *in the Arabian tale*, did not hesitate to abandon his comrade.” “And so, *as Tiny Tim observed*, ‘God bless us, every one!’”

6. To set off short quotations informally introduced.

EXAMPLE.—“Who said, ‘*Let us have peace*’?”

7. To set off independent elements.

EXAMPLE.—“Fly, *brother*, fly!”

8. Frequently, to mark the ellipsis of a word.

EXAMPLES.—“Burke was a statesman; Cowper, a poet.” “Tickets, fifty cents.”

9. Sometimes, at the end of a long subject.

EXAMPLE.—“The Convention which assembled at Paris in 1792, decreed that royalty was abolished in France.”

10. Sometimes, between the members of a compound sentence that are not subdivided by commas.

EXAMPLE.—“We love Burns, and we pity him.”—*Carlyle*.

11. When necessary to prevent ambiguity.

What does the adverb modify in “He who breaks his promises frequently loses the confidence of his friends”?

EXERCISES.

8. Copy ten sentences, to illustrate the first ten rules for the comma.

9. Supply omitted commas:

1. Macaulay is learned vivacious and elegant; Sydney Smith vigorous and witty.—*Underwood*. 2. Morally the general superiority of women over men is I think unquestionable.

3. Between the dark and the daylight

When night is beginning to lower

Comes a pause in the day's occupations

That is known as the children's hour.—*Longfellow*.

*The Semicolon (;).***10. The Semicolon is used—**

1. Between the members of a compound sentence that are subdivided by commas.

EXAMPLE.—“He did it all, and infinitely more; and to Tiny Tim, who did not die, he was a second father.”—*Dickens*.

2. Between members that are loosely connected.

EXAMPLE.—“I’ll answer him by law; I’ll not budge an inch.”—*Shak*.

3. Before *as*, *viz.*, *namely*, etc., when they introduce examples or illustrations.

EXERCISES.

11. Copy two sentences that illustrate the first rule.

12. Punctuate:

1. It was now Miss Gilbert’s office to engage the audience and her little troop of infantry was put through its evolutions and exercises, to the astonishment and delight of all beholders.—*Holland*.
2. In 1848, Donald G. Mitchell visited Europe for the second time and on his return he published “The Battle Summer.”

*The Colon (:).***13. The Colon is used—**

1. Before an enumeration, or a quotation introduced by “as follows,” or an equivalent expression.

EXAMPLE.—“The following persons were elected: President, John Doe; Vice-President, Richard Roe.”

2. Sometimes, to separate the members of a compound sentence that are subdivided by semicolons.

EXERCISE.

14. Punctuate:

The Chair makes the following appointments Orator Edward Brooks Essayist Florence Dean.

The Period (.)

15. The Period is used—

1. After declarative and imperative sentences.

EXAMPLES.—“Truth is mighty.” “Let there be light.”

2. After abbreviations, headings, Arabic figures used to number paragraphs, etc. (2, 6.)

EXERCISES.

16. Copy examples to illustrate the foregoing rules.

17. Punctuate:

1 Soldiers fight 2 Rev F L Harding 3 Chap xi 4 I go but I return 5 Come boys

The Interrogation-Point (?)

18. The Interrogation-Point is used after questions.

EXAMPLES.—“Who won the battle of Fredericksburg?” “‘My father! must I stay?’ shouted he.”

EXERCISES.

19. Copy two sentences that illustrate this rule.

20. Punctuate:

1. What is truth 2. Pilate asked “What is truth” 3. “What is truth” Pilate asked. 4. Who asked “What is truth” 5. Where is my wife Elizabeth

The Exclamation-Point (!)

21. The Exclamation-Point is used after expressions that denote strong emotion.

EXAMPLES.—“How time flies!” “Alas, poor Yorick!”

The interjection *O* is called the vocative *O*, and is not directly followed by any point; as, “O stay!” The interjection *oh* is called the emotional *oh*, and is followed by an exclamation-point or a comma; as, “Oh, how lovely!” “Oh! I am ruined.”

The Dash (—).

22. The Dash is used—

1. Sometimes, to set off a parenthetical expression.

EXAMPLE.—“I ought to presume—and it costs me nothing to do so—that he abundantly deserves the esteem,” etc.—*Burke*.

2. To denote a sudden change of thought.

EXAMPLE.—“‘Bring me the’—but he suddenly disappeared.”

3. At the end of a line, to show that the sense is not complete. (22.)

4. At the end of a quotation, before the name of the author. (22, 1.)

Marks of Parenthesis ().

23. Marks of Parenthesis are used to inclose a remark or explanation that has no essential connection with the rest of the sentence.

EXAMPLE.—“Know, then, this truth, (enough for man to know,) Virtue alone is happiness below.”—*Pope*.

Brackets [].

24. Brackets are used to inclose a remark or correction made by some one not the author.

EXAMPLES.—“The chairman of the committee [*Mr. Smith*] presented the bill.” “The wages of sin is [*are*] death.”

Quotation-Marks (“ ”).

25. Quotation-Marks are used to inclose quoted expressions.

EXAMPLES.—Did Galileo say, “Nevertheless it does move”? “Now,” he said, “is your time.”

A quotation within a quotation in *double marks* is inclosed in *single marks*, and *vice versa*; as, “The teacher asked, ‘Did Galileo say, “Nevertheless it

does move"?" " "Dickens's "Old Curiosity Shop,"" said he, 'is very interesting.'"

EXERCISES.

26. *Copy sentences that illustrate the use of exclamation-points, marks of parenthesis, and quotation-marks.*

27. Punctuate:

1 Who wrote The Present Crisis 2 The lady asked Who wrote The Present Crisis 3 By whom asked the lady was The Present Crisis written 4 The lady asked by whom The Present Crisis was written

5 I claim you old friend yawned the arm-chair
This corner you know is your seat *Lowell*

28. *Explain the points used in your reading-lesson. Your geography-lesson. Your history-lesson.*

Other Marks.

29. The **Hyphen** (-) is used to join the parts of many compound words. It is also placed at the end of a line when part of a word is taken to the next line.

30. The **Caret** (^) is used in writing, to show where words or letters are to be inserted.

31. The **Star** (*), **Dagger** (†), **Double-Dagger** (‡), etc., are used as marks of reference.

32. *Emphatic words* are sometimes underscored.

33. In manuscripts, a line drawn under a word indicates *italics*; two lines, **SMALL CAPITALS**; three lines, **CAPITALS**.

USE OF WORDS.

Rules for Selecting Words.

34. In the *selection of words*, the following rules should be observed:

1. Use words in their *proper sense*.

When you are in doubt about the meaning of a word, look for it in the

dictionary. Read the sentence given in the dictionary to illustrate its use, as well as the definition. Do not attempt to use a word the meaning of which you do not know.

Words frequently Misused.

Above, for *more than*; as, "*Above* a hundred." ("The *above* words" should probably be "The *foregoing* words.")

Accord, for *grant*; as, "He *accorded* me the privilege."

Aggravate, for *provoke* or *irritate*.

Alone, for *only*; as, "By man *alone*."

Allow, for *say*, *assert*, or *intend*.

Animal, for *brute*.

Any, for *at all*; as, "He was not hurt *any*."

Apt, for *likely* or *liable*; as, "It will be *apt* to rain."

Awful or **awfully**, for *exceedingly*, *very*; **awful**, for *ugly*, *disagreeable*, etc.; as, "It is *awfully* hard." "His conduct was *awful*."

Back, for *ago*; as, "Some time *back*."

Bad, for *ill* or *sick*.

Balance, for *rest* or *remainder*; as, "The *balance* of the night."

Bound, for *determined*.

Couple, for *two*; as, "I have a *couple* of dollars."

Every, as in "*every* praise."

Except or **without**, for *unless*; as, "I will not go, *except* you go."

Expect, for *suppose* or *think*; as, "I *expect* it rained last night."

Female, for *woman*.

Get, for *have*. (*Get* implies exertion.)

Grow, for *become*; as, "It *grows* smaller every day."

Locate, for *place*.

Partially, for *partly*.

Plenty, for *plentiful*.

Quantity, for *number*.

Recollect, for *remember*. (When we do not *remember*, we try to *recollect*.)

Remit, for *send*; as, "*Remit* the money."

Some, for *somewhat*; as, "He is *some* better."

Tell apart, for *distinguish*; as, "I could not *tell* them *apart*."

Tough, for *hard*, *severe*; as, "A *tough* problem." "A *tough* winter."

Try, for *make*; as, "Try the experiment."

2. In ordinary speaking and writing, give persons and things their *plain names*.

When you can choose between a long word and a short one, always take the short word. Which shall we say—"We went home," or "We proceeded

to our residence"? "He was thanked," or "He was the recipient of grateful acknowledgments"?

Concrete terms produce more vivid impressions than abstract ones.

3. In choosing between words that have nearly the same meaning, select the *fittest word*.

Words that have the same or nearly the same meaning, are called *synonyms*. Usually, synonyms have the same general meaning, with shades of difference; as, *answer* and *reply*, *robber* and *thief*.

Be especially careful in the choice of adjectives. Do not speak of a "nice" beefsteak, a "nice" morning, a "nice" companion, etc. Do not call Niagara Falls "lovely," or "pretty." Remember that a spider is not the "awfullest creature you have ever seen."

4. Avoid expressions not in good use. Among these are—

After a bit, a long mile, another one, both alike, by good rights, clear out (for go away), cracked up (for praised), done up brown, frustrated, for good and all, have got to go, never let on, nowadays, head over heels, off of (for off), says I, thinks I, etc.

To this list may also be added slang words and phrases, "words" that are not words, tautological expressions, obsolete words, etc. (See 5, 6, 7.)

5. Do not use slang words or phrases.

Slang phrases are vulgar. It is said by some that an idea or a thought is sometimes better expressed by a slang phrase than in any other way. If this is true, it is probable that the idea or thought should be left unexpressed.

6. Do not use "words" that are not words.

A word must be in good general use before we are allowed to employ it in composition.

Among the "words" we should not use are *ain't, anywhere, firstly, height, illy, rumpus, specs, unbeknown*, etc.

7. Avoid *tautological* and *redundant expressions*.

TAUTOLOGIES: *False misrepresentations, frosty rime, funeral obsequies, leafy foliage, new beginner, sylvan wood*, etc.

REDUNDANCIES: "I have got a cold." "He looks at it with *an eye of contempt*." "I have no leisure *at my command*."

8. Do not use *new combinations* of words.

Avoid such expressions as "a go-as-you-please race"; "a buy-goods-when-you-need-them rule"; "the never-too-often-to-be-repeated reason," etc.

9. Do not use *obsolete words*.

10. As a rule, avoid *foreign words* and *phrases*.

Which shall we say—"This is *à propos*," or "This is appropriate"?
 "Keep this *inter nos*," or "Keep this between ourselves"?

EXERCISES.

35. Use **simple expressions** for—

1. She retired to her downy couch. 2. He expired in indigent circumstances. 3. An elevated apartment. 4. Pharmaceutical chemist. 5. They proceeded to the sanctuary.

36. **Correct the following errors:**

1. Look back for one short moment into the past that has gone and left us. 2. She has a nice smile. 3. A drink of cool water is nice on a hot, midsummer day. 4. He stood speechless in our midst without uttering a sound. 5. He do n't enthuse his audience a bit.

37. **Fill the blanks with words from the following list:**

Bravery, courage; conduct, behavior; petition, request; to bury, to inter; to clothe, to dress; healthy, healthful, wholesome.

1. She is —. 2. The climate is —. 3. The food is —. 4. The air is —. 5. The king received their —. 6. All nature is — in beauty. 7. They — in the height of fashion. 8. Savages are — in skins. 9. The soldiers — gallantly. 10. The — of Charles I was dignified. 11. The man of — faces danger calmly. 12. — men are sometimes rash. 13. He — his face in his hands. 14. General Meade was — with imposing ceremonies. 15. The poor animal was —.

38. **The following foreign expressions are among those in frequent use. Can you find English equivalents for them? (See dictionary.)**

FRENCH TERMS: *Billet-doux*, *boudoir*, *coup d'état*, *esprit de corps*, *protégé*, *tête-à-tête*.

LATIN TERMS: *Ad libitum*, *ad valorem*, *alias*, *alma mater*, *bona fide*, *contra*, *et cetera*, *exempli gratia* (contracted *e. g.*), *ex officio*, *ibidem* (con. *ibid.*), *idem* (con. *id.*), *id est* (con. *i. e.*), *ignis fatuus*, *in statu quo*, *nota bene* (*N. B.*), *per se*, *pro* and *con*, *pro tempore*, *sine die*, *verbatim*, *versus*, *via*, *viz.*, *vice*, *vice-versa*.

39. Words Combined with Prepositions.

(FOR REFERENCE.)

- Accept, with or without *of*.
 Access *to*.
 Accommodate one thing *to* another;
 a person *with* a thing.
 Accompanied *by*, *with*.
 Accuse *of* (not *with*).
 Acquit *of*.
 Adapted *to*, sometimes *for*.
 Admission *to* (access), *into* (entrance).
 Admit *to*, *into*, *of*.¹
 Advantage *of*, *over*.
 Agree *with* (a person), *among* (ourselves), *to* (a thing), *upon* (a thing), *in* (doing something).
 Amuse *with*, *at*, *in*.
 Angry *with* (a person), *at* (a thing).
 Anxious *for*, *about*, sometimes *on*.
 Appropriate *to*.
 Approve, with or without *of*.
 Arrive *at*, *in*, *from*.
 Ask *of* (a person), *for*, sometimes *after* (a person or thing).
 Attend *to* (listen), *upon* (await).
 Bestow *on* or *upon*.
 Call *on* or *upon* (a person), *for* (a person or thing), *at* (a house), *in* (question), *after* (a person), *by* (a name).
 Care *for*, *about*, *of*.
 Charge a crime *against* or *on* a person, a person *with* a crime.
 Coincide *with*.
 Compare *with* (in quality), *to* (for illustration).
 Comparison *with*, *between*.
 Concur *with* (a person), *in* (an opinion).
 Confide *in* (a person), (a thing *to* a person).
 Congratulate *on* or *upon*.
 Connect *with* (an equal), *to* (a superior).
 Contend *with* (a person), *for* (an object), *against* (an obstacle).
 Convert *into*, sometimes *to*.
 Copy *from* (a thing), *after* (a person).
 Correspond *with*, *to*.
 Covered *by*, *with*.
 Danger *of*, sometimes *from*.
 Deal *with*, rarely *by*.
 Defend *from*, sometimes *against*.
 Demand *of*, *from*.
 Depend *on* or *upon*.
 Dependent *on*.
 Desire *for*, *of*, sometimes *after*.
 Devolve *on* or *upon*.
 Die *of*, sometimes *with* or *from* (a disease), *by* (an instrument).
 Differ *among* (ourselves), *from* (one another), *from*, sometimes *with* (in opinion), *about*, *concerning* (a question), *from* (in quality).
 Difference *with* (a person), *between* (two things).
 Direct *to*, *toward*.
 Disagree *with* (a person), *to* (a thing proposed).
 Distinguished *for*, *from*, sometimes *by*.
 Enter *into*, *in*, *on*, *upon*.
 Entertain *by* (a person), *with* (a thing).
 Equal *to*, *with*.
 Escape *from*, sometimes *out of*.
 Familiar *to* (us), *with* (a thing).
 Favorite *of*, *with*.
 Followed *by*.
 Frightened *at*.
 Glad *of*, rarely *at*.
 Graduate *at*, *from*, *in*.
 Grieve *at*, *for*.
 Hatred *to*, *of*.
 Impatient *with* (a person), *at* (one's conduct), *of* (restraint), *under* (affliction), *for* (something expected).
 Incorporate *into*, *with*.
 Indulge *with* (one thing), *in* (a habit).
 Inquire *after*, *about*, *concerning*, *for*, *into*, *of*.
 Insight *into*.
 Introduce *to* (a person), *into* (a place).
 Intrust *to* (a person), *with* (a thing).
 Irritated *by* (a person), *by*, sometimes *at* (an action).
 Join *with* (an equal), *to* (a superior).
 Killed *by* (a person), *with* (a thing).
 Listen *for* (something to be heard), *to* (something heard).
 Love *of*, *for*.
 Make *of*, *out of*, *from*, *with*, *for*.
 Married *to*.
 Mix *with*, *in*.
 Mortified *with*, *at*.
 Name *after*, *from* (not *for*).
 Necessary *to*, *for*.
 Necessity *for*, *of*.
 Need *of* (not *for*).
 Objection *to*, sometimes *against*.
 Oblivious *of*.
 Obtain *from*, *of*.
 Occupy *with*, *by*, *in*.
 Offended *with*, *at*, *by*.

Opinion <i>on, about.</i>	Remedy <i>for, sometimes against.</i>
Opportunity ² <i>for, of.</i>	Repine <i>at</i> (what is), <i>for</i> (what is not).
Opposition <i>to.</i>	Respect <i>for, to.</i>
Originated <i>with, in.</i>	Search <i>for, after, out.</i>
Parallel <i>to, with.</i>	Seized <i>by</i> (a person), <i>with</i> (illness).
Partake <i>of.</i> ¹	Sick <i>of, with.</i>
Partiality <i>to, for.</i>	Situated <i>on</i> (a road), <i>in</i> (a street).
Pity <i>on.</i>	Smile <i>at</i> (frequently unfavorably), <i>upon, or on</i> (favorably).
Possessed <i>of, by, with.</i>	Surprised <i>at, by, sometimes with.</i>
Prefer <i>to, rarely before.</i>	Surround <i>by, with.</i>
Prejudice <i>against</i> (not <i>to, for, or in</i> <i>favor of</i>).	Sympathize <i>with</i> (a person), <i>in</i> (his sorrow).
Present <i>to.</i>	Sympathy <i>with, between, sometimes</i> <i>for.</i>
Protect <i>from, against.</i>	Think <i>of, about, sometimes on.</i>
Punish <i>by</i> (a person), <i>with</i> (a penalty), <i>for</i> (a crime).	Vexed <i>with, at.</i>
Put <i>into, in.</i>	Wait <i>for</i> (await), <i>on or upon</i> (attend).
Receive <i>of, from.</i>	Want <i>of, with.</i>
Recline <i>upon, on.</i>	Yoke <i>with.</i>
Rely <i>on or upon.</i>	

1. This preposition may be omitted. 2. An infinitive may follow this word.

CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES.

General Rules.

40. In the *construction of sentences*, the following rules should be observed :

1. Do not make your sentences *too long*.

To produce the best effect, both long and short sentences should be used. The common error of running several independent sentences together should be avoided.

"The aim must be to convey the greatest quantity of thought with the smallest quantity of words."—*Spencer*.

"Long sentences fatigue the reader's attention."—*Blair*.

2. Arrange the parts of each sentence so that it will express just what you mean it to express.

3. See that every sentence is followed by the proper *punctuation-mark*.

4. Aim at *variety of expression*. Avoid mannerisms, stereotyped ways of expressing thought, etc.

Variety of expression may be obtained by changing the *arrangement* of the parts of a sentence, by changing its *structure*, by changing its *phraseology*, etc.

*Structure of Sentences Changed.***41. Sentences may be changed in structure—****1. By changing the *voice* of the verb.**

EXAMPLES.—“Columbus discovered America.” “America was discovered by Columbus.” (399, etc.)

2. By using or omitting *it*, the preparatory pronoun, or *there*, the adverb of position.

EXAMPLES.—“It is wrong to steal.” “To steal is wrong.” “There was no one here.” “No one was here.” (281 b, 1; 487, 10.)

EXERCISE.

42. Change the structure of the following sentences :

1. By whom was the telephone invented? 2. Who discovered the source of the Nile? 3. And the wagons and the oxen were taken by Moses and given unto the Levites.—*See Num. vii, 6.* 4. To become a good mechanic requires skill and patience. 5. There was nothing heard.

*Phraseology of Sentences Changed.***43. Sentences may be changed in phraseology—****1. By using words instead of phrases or clauses.**

EXAMPLES.—“*Wise men act cautiously,*” for “Men of *wisdom act with caution,*” or “Men *who are wise* act cautiously.” “Wealth *acquired dishonestly,*” etc., for “Wealth *that is acquired* dishonestly,” etc.

2. By using phrases or clauses instead of words.

EXAMPLES.—“We study *that we may improve,*” for “We study *to improve.*” “He acted *with promptness,*” for “He acted *promptly.*”

3. By using abridged clauses for unabridged clauses, and the reverse.

EXAMPLES.—“*Shame being lost,* all virtue is lost,” for “*When shame is lost,* all virtue is lost.” “I believe *that the earth is round,*” for “I believe *the earth to be round.*”

4. By using synonyms and other equivalent expressions.

EXAMPLES.—“He is *fortunate*,” for “He is *lucky*.” “‘*I will go with her*,’ he said,” for “He said *that he would go with her*.” “*Mr. Smith’s horses*,” for “The horses *belonging to Mr. Smith*.”

5. By denying the contrary.

EXAMPLES.—“He is not dead,” for “He is *alive*.” “She is not indisposed to help you,” for “She is *disposed to help you*.”

6. By recasting the sentence ; as—

Iron is the most useful metal.

Iron is more useful than any other metal.

No other metal is so useful as iron.

The most useful of all metals is iron.

No other metal equals iron in usefulness.

Iron is unequalled in usefulness by any other metal.

Iron excels all other metals in usefulness.

Every other metal is less useful than iron.

EXERCISES.

44. Use words instead of the italicized phrases and clauses :

1. At what place shall we stop ? 2. It is wrong *that any one should steal*. 3. Blessings on thee, boy *with bare feet* ! 4. Who is like *unto Thee* ? 5. He bought the doll *for his little daughter*.

45. Use phrases or clauses instead of the italicized words :

1. *Where* shall we stop ? 2. He strives *to excel*. 3. This is the house *built by Jack*. 4. Barefoot boy, with *tanned cheek*. 5. Pay *him* the money.

46. Change the italicized clauses (43, 3) :

1. *Spring having come*, all nature is clothed in beauty. 2. The workmen desired *their employer to raise their wages*. 3. I know *that they are honorable men*.

47. Use equivalent expressions for the italicized elements :

1. *Shorten* the statement. 2. Do not *attempt* to cross the river. 3. I am *ruler of everything I see*. 4. The lion is the *desert’s* king. 5. The money *belonging to him* was soon spent. 6. Bring *me* the book. 7. She gave the sword *to him*.

48. Deny the contrary :

1. He is wise. 2. Only a small part of Arabia is fertile. 3. I

am unhappy. 4. I will remain with you. 5. We looked on nothing we could call our own.

49. Recast the following sentences, expressing the same thought in as many ways as possible :

1. London is the largest city in the world. 2. Siberia occupies the entire northern part of Asia. 3. Solomon said that the wounds of a friend are faithful. 4. Few persons have the courage of their convictions. 5. Does any one know what electricity is ?

Commands Made Less Emphatic.

50. A Command may be made *less emphatic* by using an interrogative or a declarative sentence instead of an imperative sentence.

EXAMPLE.—“Will you come here ?” or, “I desire you to come here,” for “Come here.”

EXERCISE.

51. Use interrogative and declarative sentences instead of the following imperative sentences :

1. Study. 2. Try again. 3. Advance. 4. Pay as you go.
5. “O stay !”¹ the maiden said.
1. Change “O stay !”

Statements Emphasized.

52. A Statement may be made *more emphatic*—

1. By using the interrogative or the exclamatory form.

EXAMPLE.—“Is not the night dark ?” or, “How dark the night is !” for “The night is dark.”

2. By denying the contrary. (43, 5.)
3. By changing the natural order of the words.

See Part III, p. 61, etc.

EXERCISE.

53. Make the following statements more emphatic :

1. Time flies. 2. It is hot. 3. Diana is great. 4. Her locks were yellow. 5. A wise son maketh a glad father.—*Prov. xv, 20.*

Statements Combined.

54. Two or more separate statements may sometimes be *combined*—

1. Into a *simple sentence*.

Separate Statements.—Jonathan Swift was born in Dublin. His parents were English. He was born in 1687.

Combined.—Jonathan Swift was born in Dublin, of English parents, in 1687.

2. Into a *complex sentence*.

Separate Statements.—A natural magnet is an iron-ore. It is composed of iron and oxygen. It is called a loadstone.

Combined.—A natural magnet, or loadstone, is an iron-ore that is composed of iron and oxygen.

3. Into a *compound sentence*.

Separate Statements.—A wise son heareth his father's instruction. A scorner heareth not rebuke.

Combined.—A wise son heareth his father's instruction; but a scorner heareth not rebuke.

4. Into a *contracted compound sentence*.

Separate Statements.—A French frigate captured an American schooner. It was afterward captured by an American frigate. The French frigate's name was *Insurgente*; the American schooner's, *Retaliation*; and the American frigate's, *Constellation*.

Combined.—The French frigate *Insurgente* captured the American schooner *Retaliation*, and was afterward captured by the American frigate *Constellation*.

The following exercise is valuable, as affording a means for securing variety of expression; but care should be taken not to combine long, independent statements into a single sentence. As a rule, learn to express your thoughts clearly in short sentences.

EXERCISE.

55. Combine each group of statements into—

1. *A simple sentence.* Babylon was the capital of the Babylonian Empire. It was situated on the Euphrates. It was situated about fifty miles south of Bagdad.

2. *A simple sentence.* The Colossus of Rhodes was a statue. It was of brass. It was erected in honor of Apollo.

3. *A complex sentence.* William Henry Harrison died April 6, 1841. He became President March 4, 1841.

4. *A complex sentence.* The Great Pyramid was built by Cheops. Cheops was a king of Egypt. He employed ten thousand men twenty years in its erection.

5. *A compound sentence.* The fear of the Lord is the beginning of knowledge. Fools despise wisdom. Fools despise instruction.—*See Prov. i, 7.*

6. *A compound sentence.* Pocahontas implored her father to save Captain Smith's life. She was the daughter of Powhatan. Her prayer was finally granted.

7. *A contracted compound sentence.* George Washington was unanimously chosen President of the United States. He took the oath of office April 30, 1789.

8. *A contracted compound sentence.* Venus can sometimes be seen in the day-time. It is occasionally so bright after sunset as to throw a shadow.

9. *Two sentences.* Francis Bacon was born in London. He was born in 1561. He was an eminent philosopher and jurist. Besides his "Essays," his principal works are "On the Advancement of Learning" and the "Novum Organum." The "Essays" are wonderful specimens of crystallized thought. Bacon died in 1626.

10. *Three sentences.* Charles Dickens was born at Portsmouth. He was born in 1812. He was an English novelist. He was celebrated. His first sketches were published in the "Monthly Magazine." They were signed "Boz." His works furnish a large number of characters. The characters are sharply drawn. They are easily recognized.

Statements Separated.

56. A sentence may sometimes be *separated into several statements.*

Sentence.—The fame of Ben Jonson, who was born in 1574 and died in 1637, rests on his dramatic works, in which he is excelled by Shakespeare only.

Separate Statements.—Ben Jonson was born in 1574 and died in 1637. His fame rests on his dramatic works, in which he is excelled by Shakespeare only.

EXERCISE.

57. Separate the following sentences into two or more statements :

1. Richard Lovelace was born in 1618, and was educated at Oxford.

2. The wedge is a movable inclined plane, and it usually has the form of a double inclined plane.

3. Wordsworth's sister Dora was his constant companion, the complement of his nature, and more truly poetical than he.

4. Nebraska is formed from a part of the Territory of Nebraska, and is the seventh State, in the great basin of the Mississippi, admitted from the Louisiana purchase.

5. In 1813, Captain James Lawrence was appointed to the command of the United States frigate Chesapeake, then in Boston harbor, and on June 1st, with a raw crew, he put to sea and attacked the British frigate Shannon, which was lying just out of the harbor; but after a short engagement, in which every officer was killed or wounded, including Captain Lawrence, who, while dying, issued his last heroic order, "Don't give up the ship!" the enemy boarded the Chesapeake and hoisted the British flag.

FIGURES OF SPEECH.

("Figures of Speech" may be omitted until review.)

Remark.—Words are sometimes used in a sense that differs from that in which they are ordinarily used; as, "He is like a *fox*." "He is a *fox*." "*Gray hairs* should be respected." "How many *hands* do you employ?" These deviations from the ordinary mode of expression are called **Figures of Speech**. They are used to add beauty or strength to a sentence.

QUESTIONS.—*What are figures of speech? Why are figures of speech used? What words might be used instead of "gray hairs"? "Hands"? Instead of "fox," in the second example?*

58. A Figure of Speech is a deviation from the ordinary mode of expression.

59. Among the commonest figures of speech are—

1. **Simile.** A *simile* is a figure in which one object is compared with another not of the same kind.

EXAMPLE.—“He shall be like a *tree* planted by the rivers of water.”

Similes are introduced by *like* or *as*.

2. **Metaphor.** A *metaphor* is a figure in which the name or some action or quality of one object is applied to another that resembles it.

EXAMPLES.—“In peace, thou art the *gale* of spring.”—*Ossian*.
“The *tottering* state.” “*Virgin* snow.”

3. **Metonymy.** A *metonymy* is a figure in which the name of one object is used to represent another object that is associated with it.

The name of the *cause* is sometimes used to represent the *effect*, and *vice versa*; as, “Read *Shakespeare*” [his works]. “*Gray hairs* [old age] should be respected.”

The name of the *sign* is sometimes used to represent the *thing signified*; as, “*Bayonets* [soldiers] think.”

The name of the *container* is sometimes used to represent the *thing contained*; as, “The *kettle* [the water in the kettle] boils.”

4. **Synecdoche.** A *synecdoche* is a figure in which the name of a part is used to represent the whole, or the name of the whole is used to represent a part.

EXAMPLES.—“Fifty *sail* [vessels] were in the harbor.” “Our *hero* [his hair] was gray.”

Care should be taken (1) to use appropriate figures, (2) not to mix figures, and (3) not to join literal and figurative expressions. Are the following sentences correct?

1. Unravel the obscurity. 2. Clinch the thread of thought. 3. It is the center and foundation of the system.

For *Personification*—a very common figure—see 298 *e*.

EXERCISES.

60. What kinds of figures are found in the following sentences?

1. His spear was like the mast of a ship. 2. The pen is mightier

than the sword. 3. She has seen eighteen summers. 4. Thy word is a lamp to my feet and a light to my path. 5. Come as the winds come. 6. Thirty head of cattle are in the meadow. 7. Address the chair. 8. Thou art my rock and my fortress. 9. The day is bright with hope. 10. How shallow are his thoughts !

61. *In the following sentences, change the figurative to plain language :*

1. He is in the morning of life. 2. He smokes his pipe. 3. The future is a sealed book. 4. They have Moses and the prophets. 5. Let us not listen to the voice of temptation. 6. The pen is mightier than the sword. 7. The snows of eighty winters whitened his head. 8. The music was like the memory of joys that are past. 9. Metropolisville grew like Jonah's gourd. 10. Ten thousand stars were in the sky.

62. *Use each of the following words both literally and figuratively :*

1. Steal.¹ 2. Sword. 3. Stand. 4. Illuminate. 5. Cover. 6. Rest. 7. Paint. 8. Fruits. 9. Fly. 10. Sepulchre.

1. The thief *stole* the goods. I love to *steal* awhile away.

COMPOSITION WRITING.

SENTENCES.

To THE TEACHER.—See Appendix, p. 263, Sug. 12, 13, and 14. See also, "Suggestions for Composition Classes," p. 264.

EXERCISES.

63. *Write answers to the following questions. Let each answer be a sentence.*

1. What place would you like to visit ? 2. What is the most interesting book you have read ? 3. Which holiday do you like best ? 4. In which month were you born ? 5. Is a cat's tongue rough or smooth ? 6. How many legs has a fly ? 7. When can an owl see best ? 8. What is an island ? 9. A triangle ? 10. Where is the Suez Canal ?

64. Write a sentence about—

1. A grain of corn. 2. Potatoes. 3. The root of a plant. 4. Glass. 5. Snow. 6. Springs. 7. The sun. 8. Flowers. 9. Steel pens. 10. The telephone. 11. Clocks. 12. Andrew Jackson. 13. Mexico. 14. Washington. 15. The life of a railroad-conductor.

PARAGRAPHS.

Remarks.—Related thoughts are sometimes expressed by a number of sentences grouped together into what is called a **paragraph**. In a paragraph, each sentence should express a thought not expressed in a preceding sentence, and the thought thus expressed should have some relation to the preceding thought.

A paragraph usually contains two or more sentences, but it may consist of a single sentence.

A composition should be divided into paragraphs, if it treats of different and disconnected things.

QUESTIONS.—*Of what does a paragraph consist? How many paragraphs are in the foregoing remarks? How many sentences are in the first paragraph? In the second? Of how many paragraphs does your reading-lesson consist? Where should we begin to write a new paragraph?*

TO THE TEACHER.—See Appendix, p. 264, Sug. 15.

EXERCISES.**65. Write paragraphs containing two or more sentences each, about—**

1. Carpenters. What tools do they use? What do they make?
2. Ice-cream. Do you like it? Of what is it made? Where do we generally buy it?
3. Toothache. Is it painful? What causes it? Can it be cured? If so, how?
4. Lead-pencils. Of what are they made? What are they used for? Could we do without them?
5. The last book you read. What is its title? By whom was it written? Is it interesting? Instructive? Would you recommend children to read it? Why, or why not?

66. Write paragraphs of the kind seen in the "local" or news columns of newspapers, using the following facts:

1. White Elephant.

Steamer from Siam, with white elephant, arrived at Liverpool. Elephant to be taken to London Zoölogical Gardens. To Paris. To America.

The paragraph may be written as follows :

White Elephant. The steamer from Siam, with a white elephant on board, has arrived at Liverpool. The elephant is to be exhibited at the London Zoölogical Gardens, and afterward taken to Paris. It will be brought to America for exhibition.

2. House Burned.

Large dwelling-house in Smithton burned last Thursday evening. Furniture burned. Cause of fire unknown. Loss, \$8,000. Partly covered by insurance.

3. Lyceum.

Meeting to be held in Locust Grove school-house next Saturday evening. A good programme. An interesting time. All come.

4. Poultry Show.

Fifth show of Lancaster County Poultry Society. Opened on Thursday in Post-Office Hall. Will continue one week. Large exhibition. Fine specimens. Incubator in operation.

5. Child Lost.

A little girl, Mary Brown, aged five years, wandered away from home. Gone several hours. Parents in great distress. Large wood near house searched. Found at dusk on a pile of leaves asleep. Rejoicing.

67. Write short paragraphs on the following subjects, first jotting down the facts in the manner indicated above :

1. Barn burned. 2. Railroad accident. 3. Sleighing-party.
4. Entertainment in — church. 5. Sale of property.

ELEMENTS OF LETTER-WRITING.*

EXERCISE.

68. Copy the letters on page 226 :

* For a full treatment of the subject of letter-writing, see Westlake's "How to Write Letters."

Leave a narrow margin on the left-hand side of the paper. Indent each paragraph about the width of the margin.

Frankfort, May 12, 1808.

Dear Bettine,

Thy letters give me joy ; and Miss Betty, who recognizes them in the address, says, " Frau Rath, the postman brings you a pleasure." Don't, however, be too angry about my son ; everything must be done in order. The brown room is newly papered with the pattern that you chose ; the color blends peculiarly well with the morning twilight, which breaks over the Catharine-tower and enters into my room. Yesterday our town looked quite holiday-like, in the spotless light of the Alba.

Except this, everything remains as it was. Be in no trouble about the footstool, for Betty suffers no one to sit on it.

Write much, even if it were every day.

*Thy affectionate friend,
Elizabeth Goethe.*

*54 Finckney Street,
Friday, July 8, 1842.*

My dear Sir,—Though personally a stranger to you, I am about to request of you the greatest favor which I can receive from any man. I am to be married to Miss Sophia Peabody ; and it is our mutual desire that you should perform the ceremony. Unless it should be decidedly a rainy day, a carriage will call for you at half-past eleven o'clock in the forenoon.

*Very respectfully yours,
Nath. Hawthorne.*

*Rev. James F. Clarke,
Chestnut Street.*

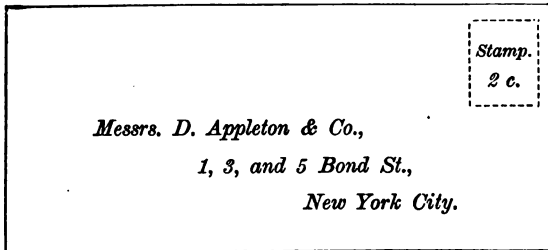
*Granite Falls, Minn.,
16 Sept., 1885.*

*Messrs. D. Appleton & Co.,
1, 3, and 5 Bond St., N. Y.*

Dear Sirs,

Will you please send me a price-list of your publications, and let me know what discount on the published retail price you give to teachers ordering books of your house ?

*Yours respectfully,
William White.*



QUESTIONS.—Where were the foregoing letters written? When were they written? To whom was the first letter written? The second? The third? By whom was the first letter written? The second? The third?

With what should letters begin? What should follow the address of the writer? Where is the date written? With what should a letter end?

How do letters get to the persons for whom they are intended? Why are they put in envelopes? Why must they be stamped? What is the value of the stamp placed on an envelope? Where is it put?

How many paragraphs are in the first letter? In the second?

Parts of a Letter.

69. The **Parts** of a letter are the *heading*, the *introduction*, the *body*, the *conclusion*, and the *superscription*.

TO THE TEACHER.—See Appendix, p. 264, Sug. 16.

The Heading.

70. The **heading** contains the post-office address of the writer and the date of writing. It usually occupies two lines. If very short, it may be put on one line; and if very long, it may be put on three lines.

71. The *heading* should begin on the first ruled line of note- or letter-paper, or about an inch and a half from the top of the page. Each succeeding line should begin about an inch farther to the right than the preceding one.

EXERCISE.

72. Arrange the following headings properly. (See 68 for punctuation.)

1. Portland, Oregon, Nov. 8, 1883. 2. 9 East Orange St., Pine Hill, Fla., August 11, 1887. 3. This letter is written at Wheeling, in West Virginia, on the 29th of June, 1892. 4. April 1, 1888, Lancaster Co., Pa., Millersville. 5. Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y., Oct. 21, 1887.

The Introduction.

73. The **Introduction** contains the name and the post-office address of the person written to, and the salutation, or complimentary address.

74. Titles of respect and courtesy should be used in the address. *Mr.* is prefixed to a man's name; *Messrs.* to the names of several men; *Miss* to an unmarried woman's name; *Misses* to the names of several unmarried women; *Mrs.* to a married woman's name; *Rev.* to a clergyman's name, and *Rev. Mr.*, if his Christian name is not used; *Dr.* to the name of the holder of the degree of LL. D., D. D., Ph. D., or M. D.; *Prof.*, sometimes, to the name of a person at the head of a department in an advanced institution of learning. *Esq.* is generally placed after a lawyer's name, and frequently after other gentlemen's names.

Members of the Society of Friends do not use titles, as a rule.

Do not misuse titles, particularly the title *Prof.* Do not write, *Mr. John Smith, Esq.* When LL. D., D. D., Ph. D., or M. D., is placed after the name, the title *Dr.* must of course be omitted.

In addition to the foregoing titles, military titles, and many others, are in common use.

75. The **Salutation** is the term of politeness or respect with which we begin the body of a letter. Strangers may be addressed as *Dear Sir*, *Dear Madam*, etc.; friends as *My dear Sir*, *My dear Madam*, *Dear Friend*, etc.; and near relatives and other dear friends as *My dear Wife*, *My dear Mary*, *Dearest Caroline*, etc.

The salutation generally used in business letters is *Dear Sir* (or *Dear Sirs*), or *Dear Madam* (or *Ladies*). *Sir* and *Madam* are very formal.

The salutation should not be too familiar. It should not contain any abbreviations.

76. The *arrangement* of the name and address is the same as that of the heading. The first part of the name, or the title, should begin at the marginal line. In business letters, the name and

address are generally written immediately after the heading ; in letters of friendship, they should be written last.

77. The *salutation* is written on the line below the address (or the heading, if the address is written last). It should begin as far to the right as the other paragraphs of the letter.

It may be remarked here that the title *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, or *Miss*, is generally used before the name when speaking to, as well as of, a person. The title *Dr.* is used (in America) in speaking to a physician. *Rev.*, *Hon.*, and *Esq.*, should not be used in speaking to a person. If the much-abused title of *Professor* is used, be sure that the person to whom it is applied is entitled to it.

Observe that *Rev.* and *Hon.* are adjectives, and must be preceded by *the* when used in speaking of a person. We may write "Rev. James Goodman," "Hon. U. C. Sharp;" but these expressions must be read, "The reverend James Goodman;" "The honorable U. C. Sharp." "Rev. Mr. Goodman" is correct; but not "Rev. Goodman."

EXERCISES.

78. *Arrange the following headings and introductions properly :*

1. Millersville, Lancaster Co., Pa., April 1, 1888. Messrs. Smith & Jones, Milwaukee, Wis. Dear Sirs. 2. This letter is written by Joshua L. Lyte, at No. 111 North Lime Street, in the city of Lancaster, Pa., to his brother, Francis A. Lyte, whose place of business is 301 Central Avenue, Minneapolis, Minn.

79. *Write a salutation for a letter to—*

1. Your father. 2. A near friend. 3. A schoolmate. 4. A business firm. 5. A distant relative.

Body of the Letter.

80. The *body* of a letter contains what the writer wishes to say to the person to whom the letter is written.

81. *Letters of Friendship* should be familiar and colloquial. Their greatest charm is their unaffected simplicity. Remember that your friends will be interested in whatever you are interested in. Do not fill your letters with apologies.

82. *Business Letters* should relate to business only. No more words than necessary should be used, but care must be taken not to make the letter so brief as to be in any degree obscure.

83. In answering a letter, it is a good plan to begin by acknowledging its receipt. In acknowledging the receipt of a business letter, give its date, and make a brief reference to its contents ; as, "Your letter of the 21st inst., inquiring for a clerk, was received this morning."

Make new paragraphs when necessary. Do not use & for *and* except in writing the name of a firm. Do not write "Our 2 friends," but "Our two friends." Do not begin with "*I*" if you can avoid it.

84. The beginning of the body should generally be written on the line below, and under the end of, the salutation. If the introduction is long, the body of the letter should begin on the same line as the salutation. (See 68.)

Conclusion.

85. The **Conclusion** contains the complimentary close and the signature.

86. Like the salutation, the *complimentary close* should not be too familiar. In letters of friendship one may use *Your sincere friend*, *Yours affectionately*, *Your loving son*, etc. In business letters the complimentary close is usually *Yours truly* or *Yours respectfully*. *Very* is sometimes added, as, *Yours very truly* ; and sometimes the order of the words is changed, as, *Respectfully yours*.

87. *The signature should be plainly written.* In signing business letters, and other business papers, men may use initials instead of the Christian name ; women should never do so. Avoid the use of nicknames.

In writing to an entire stranger, a married woman should sign her own name, and, after the signature, give her address in full ; as, "Address : Mrs. John Brown, Nantucket, Mass." An unmarried woman should write before her name the title "*Miss*," inclosed in brackets.

88. The complimentary close is written on the line below the end of the body of the letter. The signature is written on the line below the close, near the right-hand edge of the sheet. The close and the signature should slope to the right, like the heading and address.

Do not close a letter with "*Yours, etc.*" Do not say, "*Yours respectively.*"

EXERCISE.

89. Write a conclusion for a letter to—

1. Your father.
2. A near friend.
3. A schoolmate.
4. A business firm.
5. A distant relative.

Folding, etc.

90. The following simple directions may be of service :

Note-paper is folded by turning the bottom up about one third of the length of the sheet, and bringing the top down over this, care being taken that the sides are even. The letter is inserted in the envelope by putting in first the edge last folded, the part of the letter last folded being next the back of the envelope.

Superscription.

91. The **Superscription** is the address that is put on the envelope. It consists of the name and title of the person to whom the letter is written, and his post-office address.

92. The *superscription* should occupy three or four lines. The first line of the superscription should be written just below the middle of the envelope, beginning near the left-hand edge. The lines should slope to the right, as in the heading and address.

Direct plainly. Write the abbreviation of the State carefully. In writing to a person not living in a large city, give the post-office, the county, and the State. If the person written to lives in a large city, give the door-number and name of the street, the city, and the State.

EXERCISE.

93. Mark off on slate or paper the size of an envelope (about three and a quarter by five and a half inches), and direct a letter to—

1. Mr. Charles H. Harding, 106 Chestnut St., Philadelphia.
2. Louis C. Lyte, Esq., whose address is Bird-in-Hand, Lancaster Co., Pa.
3. Mrs. Sarah J. Felton, residing in Osborne Hollow, which is in the State of New York, and in Broome Co.
4. H. S. Goodwin, Esq., General Superintendent of the Lehigh Valley Railroad, Bethlehem, Pa.
5. A physician by the name of O. I. Healall, whose residence is in Olympia, Washington Territory.

General Suggestions.

94. Write plainly and neatly ; spell and syllabify correctly ; punctuate properly ; follow the rules of grammar ; use capital letters correctly.

95. Reply promptly to every letter requiring an answer ; adapt the style of the letter to the person and the subject ; never write anything improper or imprudent ; read every letter before sealing it, and examine the superscription before mailing it ; do not mix business and friendship in a letter ; *always be courteous* ; stamp every letter before mailing it ; place the stamp on the upper right-hand corner of the envelope, about one eighth of an inch from each edge ; inclose a stamp for return-postage, if the answer is for your exclusive benefit.

EXERCISES.

96. Write—

1. A letter to Ruebush, Kieffer & Co., Dayton, Rockingham Co., Va., using your own name and address, and the following body :

A late number of "The Musical Million" contains a beautiful song, entitled "Sweet Sabbath Eve." Will you please inform me whether the song is published in sheet-form, and if so, where and at what price it can be obtained ?

2. A letter to Paul Wiseman, LL. D., Mount Intelligence, Chippewa Co., Minn., asking for a catalogue of the school of which he is principal.

3. The following letter to a dear friend :

There will be a picnic held in Gibbons's woods next Saturday, and we are all going to it. Won't you go with us ? Mother says I am to ask you to come to our house on Friday evening and stay until Monday. Do come, my dear — ; we shall all expect you, and shall be greatly disappointed if you are not with us.

We intend to boat and fish, and hunt wild-flowers ; so come prepared to have a good time, and bring clothes with you that will not be hurt by mud and water.

4. An answer, accepting the foregoing invitation.

5. An answer, thanking your friend for the invitation, and expressing regret that it is impossible for you to accept it.

97. The following subjects for letters are suggested :

1. To an absent schoolmate, about school-affairs.
2. From a doll to her mistress.
3. To your mother, describing your school-life.
4. From a dog to his master.
5. From a spider to a fly.
6. Reply of the fly.
7. To Santa Claus.
8. To a distant cousin.
9. To a dear friend, who is very ill.
10. To a friend, giving your opinion of the political outlook.

NOTES.

98. Notes are briefer than letters, and generally more formal. They are frequently used for invitations, replies, etc.

Invitations should be answered promptly. The answer to an invitation given by a lady and gentleman should be addressed on the envelope to the lady only.

EXERCISES.

99. Copy the following notes :

Mr. and Mrs. Brown request the pleasure of Mr. and Mrs. Smith's company at dinner on Monday evening, March twenty-ninth, at seven o'clock.

Bird-in-Hand.

Mr. and Mrs. Smith accept with pleasure Mr. and Mrs. Brown's kind invitation for Monday evening, March twenty-ninth.

Lancaster, March 22d.

Mr. and Mrs. Smith greatly regret that intended absence from home prevents them from accepting Mr. and Mrs. Brown's kind invitation for Monday evening, March twenty-ninth.

Lancaster, March 22d.

100. Write the following notes :

1. An invitation to a friend to attend an evening party at your house.
2. A reply, accepting the invitation.
3. A reply, declining the invitation, with regrets.
4. A note to a friend, requesting the loan of a book.
5. An invitation to a birthday-party.

BUSINESS PAPERS.*

101. The following **Business Papers** are among those in common use : *Receipts, Invoices, Accounts, Promissory Notes, Due-Bills, Drafts, Checks, and Orders.*

Simple forms of these business papers will be given.

TO THE TEACHER.—See Appendix, p. 264, Sug. 17.

102. *Receipts.*

Philadelphia, October 21, 1876.
Received of W. S. Landor, Ten $\frac{10}{100}$ Dollars, in
full of all accounts to date.
\$10 $\frac{10}{100}$. Harriet Martineau.

A receipt should always be given for money paid or deposited, and generally on the delivery of merchandise or other articles of value. Losses and lawsuits may thus frequently be prevented.

The foregoing form is used when an account is paid in full. For the words "in full of accounts," use "on account," if payment is made on an unsettled account; "in full of all demands," if *all* claims are paid, etc.

A convenient size for a receipt, promissory note, draft, check, etc., is *three by seven or eight inches.*

The payment of part of a promissory note (105) should be receipted on the back or the face of the note.

Invoices and accounts may be receipted as shown in 104.

EXERCISE.

1. Copy the foregoing receipt.
2. Write a receipt, showing that Samuel J. Tilden has paid you \$125 $\frac{50}{100}$ on account.
3. If you pay your account in full at William Cake's bakery (\$63 $\frac{75}{100}$), what form of receipt should he give you ?

* For a full treatment of the subject of Business Papers, see the author's "Practical Book-keeping."

103. Invoices.*Wilkes-Barre, Pa.,**December 31, 1879.**Mrs. A. C. Housekeeper,**Bought of Coffey & Tiegh, Grocers.*

5	<i>lbs. Crushed Sugar,</i>	@ .08	40
6	<i>" Coffee,</i>	@ .15	90
4	<i>" Tea,</i>	@ .82	3 28
3	<i>gals. N. O. Sirup,</i>	@ .75	2 25
1	<i>bbl. Apples,</i>		2 25
5	<i>doz. Eggs,</i>	@ .11	55
			9 63

EXERCISE.

1. Copy the foregoing invoice.

2. James Reader bought, July 6, 1877, of Johnson & Boswell, 465 Market Street, Philadelphia, 1 copy of Bryant's Poems, Household ed., \$1.75 ; 1 copy of A Fool's Errand, \$1.25 ; 1 copy of Around the World in Eighty Days, \$1.75. Write the receipted invoice sent to James Reader.

104. Accounts.*Bird-in-Hand, Pa.,**April 2, 1885.**Mr. S. T. Keeper,**To Henry Carpenter, Dr.*

<i>For Lumber used in Repairing Store-room,</i>		6 50
<i>4 Locks, \$ 84,</i>	@ .65	2 60
<i>4 Mort. Knob Latches, \$ 0,</i>	@ .60	2 40
<i>Screws, Nails, etc.,</i>		1 75
<i>7 days Labor,</i>	@ 1.50	10 50
		23 75
<i>Received Payment,</i>		
<i>Henry Carpenter.</i>		

EXERCISE.

1. Copy the foregoing account.
2. John McMellen works at carting stones 11 days for Elias Brown, Augusta, Ga. ; wages for himself, \$1.10 a day ; for his horse and cart, \$1 a day. Make out the bill, dated 3d April, 1879.
3. Henry Bash, in account with L. Fairwell, Highland, O. Feb. 1, 1882, To 12 Tumblers, @ .10 ; 12 gals. Molasses, @ .50 ; 20 lbs. Crushed Sugar, @ .15. Feb. 16, To 8 lbs. Sugar, @ .15 ; 3 bbls. Salt, @ \$1.16. March 6, To 3 lbs. Tea, @ .90. Make out the account, dated March 30.

105. *Promissory Notes.*

\$1000⁰⁰/₁₀₀. *Pittsburg, Pa., April 16, 1879.*
Sixty days after date, I promise to pay to J. A. Froude, or order, One Thousand Dollars, without defalcation, value received.
Thomas Carlyle.

The words "without defalcation" are not necessary in some States. If the note is to draw interest from date, the words "with interest" must be inserted.

In the foregoing note, *J. A. Froude* is the payee and *Thomas Carlyle* is the maker. The words "or order" make the note *negotiable*. It may be transferred to a third person by indorsement. The two kinds of indorsement are here shown, the first being an indorsement *in full*, the second an indorsement *in blank* :

Pay to the order of
Edward Irving,
J. A. Froude.
Edward Irving.

EXERCISE.

1. Copy the foregoing note and indorsements.

2. Write a promissory note, with yourself as maker, in favor of Roger Williams, for \$350, payable in 60 days.

3. Boyd & Adams, Lancaster, Pa., gave Myers, Brown & Co., on the 1st of April, 1886, a promissory note for \$875 $\frac{4}{10}$ %, payable at the Farmers' National Bank, in 3 months, with interest at 6%. Write the note. Write an indorsement in full, transferring the note to Lukens & Co. Write an indorsement in blank made by Lukens & Co., when the note is deposited at bank for collection.

106. Due-Bills.

\$28 $\frac{4}{10}$ %.
 100

Xenia, O., August 27, 1879.

Due Wm. S. Hough, or order, Twenty-eight $\frac{4}{10}$
 Dollars in Merchandise from my store.

William Mercer.

EXERCISE.

1. Copy the foregoing due-bill.
2. Write a due-bill for \$10, in favor of Henry Landis.
3. Write a due-bill, showing that on April 1, 1884, J. B. Martin is entitled to \$16 $\frac{4}{10}$ % in merchandise from the store of B. Cooper, Fairview, Pa.

107. Drafts.

\$645 $\frac{7}{10}$ %.
 100

West Chester, Pa., April 1, 1886.

At ten days' sight, pay to D. M. Sensenig, or
 order, at the Williamsport National Bank, Six
 Hundred and Forty-five $\frac{7}{10}$ Dollars, value re-
 ceived, and charge to the account of

To A. D. Hower,

G. M. Phillips.

Williamsport, Pa.

The signer of a draft is the *drawer*, the person ordered to make the payment is the *drawee*, and the person to whom the money is to be paid is the *payee*. Drafts drawn at sight must be paid when presented to the drawee.

The foregoing draft is due ten days after A. D. Hower "accepts" it, i. e., writes the word "*Accepted*," with his signature and the date across the face.

EXERCISE.

1. Copy the foregoing draft. "Accept" it.
2. Write a sight draft with yourself as drawer, Jonathan Edwards as payee, and Thomas Clapp, New Haven, Conn., as drawee, for \$300. Write an indorsement in full, by which the payee transfers the bill to Cotton Mather. Write an indorsement in blank.
3. O. Palmer, of Pittsburg, Pa., draws on J. B. McJunkin, Butler, Pa., for \$850 $\frac{1}{10}$. The draft is dated January 19, 1878, and is drawn in favor of James Bredin, at ten days' sight, payable at the Butler National Bank. It is accepted January 23, 1878. It is transferred to E. McJunkin by an indorsement in full, and by him indorsed in blank and presented at bank. Write the draft, acceptance, and indorsements.

108. *Checks.*

Lancaster, Pa., April 14, 1889.
Farmers' National Bank of Lancaster,
Pay Reynolds & Moore, or order,
Two Hundred and Fifty Dollars.
\$250 $\frac{00}{100}$. *M. Brosius.*

EXERCISE.

1. Copy the foregoing check.
2. Write a check for \$200 in favor of J. Willis Westlake, drawn on Reed, McGrann & Co., Bankers, Lancaster, Pa. Indorse it in full, in favor of Edward Brooks. Indorse it in blank.
3. If, on April 1, 1876, you pay Joel Miller \$75 $\frac{00}{100}$ by check on the Strasburg National Bank, how should the check be written? If Joel Miller transfers the check to William H. Bachman, by an indorsement in full, and William H. Bachman presents it for payment at the bank, and receives the money for it, what indorsements must be put on it?

109. *Orders.*

<p style="text-align: right;">505 Broadway, N. Y., October 21, 1886.</p> <p>Samuel Weller, Treasurer Mutual Fire Insurance Co., Pay to Oliver Twist, or order, Fifty-eight Dol- lars, in full for Salary to this date. \$58⁰⁰/₁₀₀. David Copperfield, Sec. M. F. I. C.</p>

EXERCISE.

1. Copy the foregoing order.
2. On January 2, 1880, Carbon & Co., of Carbondale, Pa., gave Mrs. C. Cooper an order on Custer & Conard for 3 tons of Coal. Write the order.
3. Christian Eiseman sold the State Normal School, Millersville, Pa., November 20, 1878, 20 doz. Eggs, @ .12½, and 28 lbs. Butter, @ .18, receiving for the sale an order given by J. G. Peters, Chairman of the Household Committee, on P. W. Hiestand, Treasurer. Write the order.

DIARIES.

110. In keeping a *diary*, record from day to day—

1. The events that interest you.
2. Whatever you desire to remember.

Make these records in *simple language*. Let them be truthful. If you have nothing to record on any particular day, let the space for the day be blank.

To THE TEACHER.—See Appendix, p. 264, Sug. 18.

111. A School-Boy's Diary.

Monday, Jan. 28. Clear and cold. Good sleighing. Recited Latin this morning to Dr. Wisacre, Prof. Quick being ill. Received a letter from home. All are well. Bought a pair of shoes, \$4.75.

Tuesday, Jan. 29. Snowing all day. I wish I could be at home to take a sleigh-ride. Knew all my lessons. Mr. Lively lectured this evening in the chapel on "The North Pole Expeditions." What hard-

ships the Arctic explorers endured! I must read "The Trip of the Jeannette." Weighed myself. Weight 119 lbs.

Wednesday, Jan. 30. Cloudy; not so cold. Snow beginning to melt. There was a frightful runaway this afternoon. Two horses, hitched to a sleigh with four children in it, were frightened by a passing train, and ran down Main Street at full speed. The sleigh was upset and the children were thrown into a snow-bank. No one was seriously hurt. How fortunate! Failed in arithmetic—I can't understand compound proportion.

112. A Leaf from the Diary of Columbus.

Wednesday, Oct. 10, 1492. The weather is delightful and the sea is smooth. Flocks of small birds of various colors come flying about the ships. Tunny-fish play in the smooth sea, and the air is as sweet and fragrant as April breezes in Seville. But no land is in sight, and the crew this evening broke forth into turbulent clamor. They insisted on turning homeward and abandoning the voyage as useless. I endeavored to pacify them by gentle words and promises of large rewards; but, as they only increased in clamor, I assumed a decided tone, and told them it was useless to murmur, that I would persevere until, by the blessing of God, I should accomplish my purpose. But I heard threats of mutiny, and the men are growing more and more desperate.

Thursday, Oct. 11. Bright hopes at last! The Pinta fished up a cane, a log of wood, a carved staff and a board; and the Nina sighted a stake covered with dog-roses. With these all the crew breathed freely, and were glad. All gloom and mutiny now gave way to eager expectation. Every one is on the lookout. In the evening, after singing the vesper hymn, I addressed the crew. . . .

10.30 P. M. Half an hour ago, I saw a light gleaming in the distance—a certain sign of land. . . .

EXERCISE.

113. The following subjects for diaries are suggested:

1. A diary, kept by the pupil for a week.
2. My little brother's diary.
3. The diary of a farmer.
4. The diary of a physician.
5. A hermit's diary.
6. A tramp's diary.
7. A leaf from George Washington's Journal.
8. Scrooge's diary, for two days before and two days after Christmas (Dickens's *Christmas Carols*).
- 9.

Henry Hudson's journal, as found in a bottle picked up in Hudson Bay. 10. Joseph's diary, kept while his brothers visited him (Gen. xliii, xliv, xlv).

NARRATIVES.

114. The following directions will be of service in writing *narratives* :

1. State things in the order in which they occurred.
2. State important and interesting circumstances only.
3. Write as you would talk.

115. The following steps may be taken in writing a *narrative* :

1. The material may be collected, as follows :

GOING FISHING.

November. Cool morning. Father asked my brother and me. Got everything ready. Fish with dip-net. A square net. Fastened to a pole by bows. Fish are driven over it. Weight of water and fish makes it form a bowl. Fish can't get away.

We soon reached the creek. Began fishing. Frank went up-stream with pole. I went down-stream. Soon told to stop. Sixteen fish.

Then went to other places. Caught eighty-five. Home. Well pleased.

2. The narrative may be written from the foregoing material, as follows :

GOING FISHING.

One cool morning in November, my father said to my brother and me, "Boys, do you want to go fishing?" Of course we did; and after getting everything ready, we started for the creek, about half a mile away.

This morning we were to fish with a dip-net. A dip-net, as many of you know, is a square net. It is fastened to a long pole by four bows. It is put into the water and the fish are driven over it, and it is then raised. The weight of the water and the fish causes the net to take the shape of a bowl, and so the fish can not swim off.

We soon reached the creek. Father found a good place for his net, and sent Frank up the stream to chase the fish down by stirring in the

water with a long pole, while I went down and threw little clods into the water as I walked slowly along toward the net. In a little while, father called out, "Stop, Joshua!—Quietly, Frank!" and raised his net. How surprised we were to see that he had a large number of fish in it! When he got them to shore, Frank and I counted them and found that he had caught sixteen.

After fishing at this place a few minutes longer, we went down the stream, stopping at several other places. In an hour or so, we had caught eighty-five large fish. We then started for home, well pleased with what we had done.

TO THE TEACHER.—See Appendix, p. 268, Sug. 14.

EXERCISE.

116. *The following subjects for narratives are suggested:*

1. Landing of the Pilgrims.

On September 6, 1620, one hundred and two pilgrims sailed from England for America. Name of vessel, Mayflower. Voyage long and perilous. Sixty-three days on the ocean. Intended 'to land at the mouth of the Hudson. Tempest. Out of course. First land seen, Cape Cod.

Difficulty in landing. Boat half rotten and useless. Repaired. A party of sixteen landed.

Dec. 6. Weather dreadful. Wandered about all day. Next morning, attacked by Indians. Escaped to ship.

Vessel was steered south and west along coast. Rudder wrenched away by storm. Found a safe harbor. On Dec. 11, O. S., landing effected. Pilgrim Fathers on Plymouth Rock.

2. A Picnic.

When and where held. Who were invited. Getting ready. The trip there. What was done. Home again.

3. A day at school. **4.** How I spent last Saturday. **5.** My last pleasure-excursion. **6.** Discovery of America. **7.** Battle of Bunker hill. **8.** Death of Lincoln. **9.** A trip to the north pole. **10.** A trip to the moon. **11.** A day with a fairy. **12.** The story of the Prodigal Son (Luke xv, 11-32). **13.** David and Goliath (1 Samuel, xvii, 38-51). **14.** The sale of Joseph into Egypt (Gen. xxxvii, 12-36). **15.** Elijah and the prophets of Baal (1 Kings, xviii, 17-40).

BIOGRAPHICAL AND HISTORICAL SKETCHES.

117. In writing *biographical* and *historical sketches*—

1. State events in the order of their occurrence.
2. State important and interesting circumstances only.

118. The following steps may be taken in writing a *biographical sketch*:

1. The material may be collected, as follows:

Bryant—distinguished poet and journalist—born 1794, in Mass.—wrote *The Embargo*, a political poem, at 13—*Thanatopsis* at 18—began the practice of law in 1815—moved to N. Y. in 1825—became editor of *Evening Post* in 1826—first edition of poems published in 1832—visited Europe several times—wrote *Letters of a Traveler*—translated the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*—began *U. S. History*—several editions of his poems published—died 1878.

2. The sketch may be written from the foregoing items, as follows:

BRYANT.

William Cullen Bryant, a distinguished poet and journalist, was born in Massachusetts in 1794. At the early age of thirteen he wrote a political poem, entitled *The Embargo*; and at eighteen he composed *Thanatopsis*, the best known and probably the best of all his poems. He began the practice of law in 1815. In 1825 he moved to New York, and became editor of *The Evening Post* the following year. The first edition of his poems was published in 1832. He visited Europe several times, and published his observations in *Letters of a Traveler*. He translated the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*, and afterward began a *History of the United States*. Several editions of his poems were published during his life. After a long and honorable career, Bryant died in 1878.

119. An *historical sketch* may be written in the same way.

1. Collect the material:

Martha's Vineyard—an island 20 m. long and from 3 to 9 m. wide—southeast of Mass.—discovered in 1602 by Bartholomew Gosnold—named by him—then valuable for its sassafras—exported to Europe as a medicine—Thomas Mayhew became Governor in 1641—settled where

Edgartown now is—interested in missionary-work—in 1835 the island was first used for camp-meeting purposes—large gathering, yearly—a fashionable summer-resort—near Gay Head, a promontory, a remnant of a tribe of Indians may be found.

2. Write the sketch from the materials collected :

MARTHA'S VINEYARD.

Martha's Vineyard is an island twenty miles long, and from three to nine miles wide, near the southeast coast of Massachusetts. It was discovered in 1602 by Bartholomew Gosnold, who gave it its name. When discovered it proved to be valuable on account of its large growth of sassafras, which was shipped to Europe as a medicine. Thomas Mayhew became Governor of the island in 1641, and soon afterward settled where Edgartown now stands. He and his family were much interested in missionary-work among the native Indians. In 1835 Martha's Vineyard was first used as a camp-meeting ground; and of late years the annual gathering on the island for religious purposes has been very large. It has also become a fashionable summer-resort. Near Gay Head, a promontory at the west end of the island, a remnant of a tribe of native Indians may still be found.

EXERCISES.

120. *The following subjects for biographical sketches are suggested :*

1. An Autobiography.

State date and place of birth; name and occupation of parents; where you have lived; things first remembered; where you have attended school; what you have studied; what you like to do best; interesting events in your life; plans for the future.

2. Biography of a schoolmate or near friend.

State date and place of birth; name and occupation of parents; where he has lived; where he has attended school; interesting events in his life; what he does; disposition and leading traits of character.

3. The most prominent man of your acquaintance. 4. The President of the United States. 5. George Washington. 6. Robert Fulton. 7. Abraham Lincoln. 8. John G. Whittier. 9. Queen Victoria. 10. Moses.

121. *The following subjects for historical sketches are suggested :*

1. The place in which you live. 2. Your native county. 3. Your native State. 4. The school you are attending. 5. The largest city or town you have visited. 6. California. 7. New York City. 8. Mexico. 9. The French Republic. 10. The American Indians.

DESCRIPTIONS.

122. The following directions will be of service in writing *descriptions of objects and places* :

1. Obtain all the information you can about the subject, and make a note of it.

Information may be obtained by seeking answers to such questions as, Where is it? Of what is it made? How large is it? For what is it used? For what is it noted? What things are like it? etc., etc.

2. After you have the information you need, arrange the items in their proper order.

3. Expand the material thus arranged, into a description.

Description of Objects.

123. The following steps will be of service in writing a description of an *object*, as *the hand* :

1. We may begin by jotting down the following items :

The hand—where located—the working member—workmen called hands—importance—parts: palm, thumb, fingers—19 bones—nerves—muscles—names of fingers—the ring-finger—thumb most important—blind read with fingers—work done by hands in school—letters written—stitches in dress—type on page.

2. These items may now be arranged in an outline, as follows :

THE HAND.

1. Important part of the upper extremity of the body.

2. Structure: Bones; number (19), location—Muscles—Nerves; fully developed, sense of touch cultivated, the blind.

3. Parts: Palm—Thumb; most important, better supplied with muscles—Fingers; names, ring-finger.

4. Work done by the hand: The hand a servant—An important instrument—Illustrations; work done by hands in school, letters written, type on page of book—An emblem of work.

8. The description may now be written, as follows :

THE HAND.

One of the most important parts of the upper extremity of the human body is the part extending from the wrist to the tips of the fingers, and called the hand.

The structure of the hand is worthy of our careful study. It has nineteen bones, five being in the palm, three in each finger, and two in the thumb. Its movements are made by a number of delicate muscles skillfully arranged. The nervous system is fully developed in all parts of the hand, especially in the fingers. It is well known that the sense of touch by the fingers is capable of a high degree of cultivation. This is illustrated by the blind, who read with the fingers.

Of the three parts of the hand, the palm, the thumb, and the fingers, the thumb is the most important. It is better supplied with muscles than the fingers, and hence has a greater variety of movements than they have. The fingers are named as follows: the index, the middle, the ring, and the little finger. In marriage ceremonies, the ring is placed on the third, or ring finger. It was once thought that a special artery connects this finger with the heart, but modern anatomy has proved that this is not true.

The hand is not only a faithful servant in the performance of physical labor, but it is also the most important instrument used in the world's work. How great is the work, for example, done by the hands in this school! How many words are written, figures made, and lines drawn, daily! Think, too, of the number of letters written and received every day by our friends and acquaintances, of the number of stitches taken in a single dress, and of the number of pieces of type necessary to print a page of a newspaper or a book.

The hand is truly considered an emblem of work; and when a farmer speaks of the "hands" at work in his harvest-field, we at once recognize the fitness of the use to which the word has been put.

EXERCISE.

124. *The following subjects for descriptions are suggested :*

1. The Teeth.

Where found, and number; grown persons have —, children have —.
Kinds: Name and number of each kind—wisdom-teeth.

Parts: Name and describe each part.

Use: In eating—in speaking—their great value.

How injured: Hot food and drink—hot and cold food and drink—biting hard substances—picking teeth with a pin or knife—neglecting to cleanse teeth.

How preserved: Using properly—cleansing frequently—examined by dentists.

2. Paper.

Materials of which it is made; forms in which it is made; its appearance; uses to which it may be put.

3. An old tree that you have often seen.

Kind, position, size, and shape; its probable age; what may be seen from its top; who have probably rested in its shade, etc.

4. The schoolhouse. 5. Knives. 6. Newspapers. 7. An old bridge. 8. The telephone. 9. The contents of a boy's pocket. 10. The contents of a Saratoga trunk. 11. A sunset. 12. Leather. 13. Iron. 14. Rivers and their uses. 15. A hive of bees.

Description of Places.

125. The following steps will indicate a method of writing a description of a place, as *Australia*:

1. Facts jotted down:

Australia.—Largest island—often called a continent—hot climate—English emigrants engaged in farming, stock-raising, gold-mining, etc.—high grass—Exports are gold, coal, copper, wheat, and tallow—three fourths the size of the U. S.—Animals: kangaroo and dingo—natives: few, black, degraded—sandy desert—natives live in huts, eat raw flesh, etc.—few large rivers—birds: swan and emu.

2. Facts arranged in an outline:

AUSTRALIA.

Size: Largest island—often called a continent—three fourths the size of the U. S.

Inhabitants: Emigrants from England—engaged in farming, stock-raising, gold-mining, etc.—natives few, black, degraded; live in huts; eat raw flesh, etc.

Climate, soil, etc.: Hot—few large rivers—sandy desert—high grass

—noted animals: the kangaroo and dingo—remarkable birds: the swan and emu.

Exports: Chief, gold and wool—other exports: coal, copper, wheat, tallow.

3. Description written from the outline:

AUSTRALIA.

Australia is the largest island of Oceania. It is so large that it is often called a continent. It looks small on the map, but it is more than three fourths the size of the United States.

A large number of emigrants from England are settled there. They are engaged in farming, stock-raising, gold-mining, etc. The natives are few in number, black, and degraded. They live in rude huts, and eat raw flesh, lizards, and worms.

The greater part of Australia is hot. There are but few large rivers on the island. Some parts of the interior are sandy deserts, and other parts are covered with high grass. The most noted animals are the kangaroo and the dingo. The black swan and the emu are the most remarkable birds.

The chief exports are gold and wool. Coal, copper, wheat, and tallow are also exported.

EXERCISE.

126. *The following subjects for descriptions are suggested:*

1. Your Native Town.

Where situated: In what county and State—near what natural object—how far, and in what direction from a city.

Size: Number of inhabitants—length of longest streets.

Public buildings: Name, location, and number.

Inhabitants: Occupation—noted men and women.

Surrounding scenery: Fine views—fine drives—handsome residences, etc.

2. The Post-Office.

Where located—postmaster—number of times mail is received—scenes when mail is distributed—anxiety of persons to receive letters, daily papers, etc.—could we do without post-offices?

3. Your own home. 4. The nearest railroad-station. 5. The county in which you live. 6. The State in which you live. 7. View from the highest point of land in the neighborhood. 8. The most interesting place you have visited. 9. New York Harbor.

10. Bunker Hill. 11. Niagara Falls. 12. A trip to California.
 13. A trip up the Nile. 14. A trip down the Mississippi. 15.
 The place you would like to live in.

Description of Processes.

127. In describing a *process*—

1. State the materials necessary to do the work.
2. State the things to be done in the order in which they should be done.

EXERCISE.

128. *The following subjects for descriptions are suggested :*

1. Making Molasses-Candy.

Materials needed: Molasses, butter, dishes, a steady fire, etc.—steps described: mixing the ingredients, stirring the mixture, testing the candy, cooling it, pulling it—conclusion: the pleasure of making molasses-candy, a winter evening's sport.

2. Making bread. 3. Building a barn. 4. Making a horse-shoe. 5. Learning to skate. 6. "Breaking" a colt. 7. Gold-mining. 8. Mining coal. 9. Teaching a young lady to fire off a pistol. 10. An old bachelor sewing on a button.

Description of Persons.

129. In describing a *person*, the following outline will be of use :

1. Form ; height, stout or thin, etc.
2. Face ; features, expression, etc.
3. Bearing, walk, etc.
4. Manners.
5. Any peculiarity of appearance, dress, etc.
6. Evidence of character, disposition, mental ability, etc.

130. The following description will serve as an illustration :

GENERAL GRANT IN 1864.

General Grant was a man of medium height and compact figure, with a slight stoop in his shoulders. His hair and beard were brown and short. His features were marked, but not prominent. His brow was broad and square, and to a close observer indicated unusual development of both intellect and will. He had clear, bright eyes, a heavy jaw, and a sharply-cut mouth, which expressed great strength and firmness. His bearing and manners were plain, modest, and retiring, and his dress was in keeping with his behavior. While in active service he generally wore the regulation undress uniform of a general, without sash or belt, and a low-crown felt hat without any badge upon it of military rank or distinction. The whole man was a marvel of simplicity, a powerful nature veiled in the plainest possible exterior, imposing on all but the acutest judges of character, or the constant companions of his unguarded hours.*

EXERCISE.

131. *The following subjects for description are suggested:*

1. One of your schoolmates. 2. Some one's grandmother.
3. The most prominent man you have seen. 4. An old man.
5. The baby. 6. The village blacksmith. 7. The person you most admire. 8. My neighbors. 9. The American Indians. 10. A native of China. 11. The President of the United States.
12. A fashionable young man. 13. Rip Van Winkle. 14. Abel Lazybones, a tramp. 15. Queer people we sometimes meet.

ESSAYS.

132. **Essays** are generally more formal and systematic than narratives or descriptions. They include a wide range of subjects, and differ greatly in length, method of treatment, and general style.

133. In writing essays upon abstract subjects, the following method of treatment will be of use :

Introduction. Preliminary remarks appropriate to the subject, and to the reader or audience.

* See Badeau's "Military History of Ulysses S. Grant."

General Nature. Clear description of subject—definition, when necessary—compared with contrary.

Origin or Cause. State and illustrate by examples, etc.

Its Effects. Upon the individual—upon the community—illustrate by examples, quotations, anecdotes, etc.

Conclusion. Practical application—our duty—result, etc.

134. The steps necessary in writing an essay may be indicated somewhat as follows :

1. *Select the subject.* The subject must suit—

(a) The writer. Do not take too broad a subject. Most young persons will write a better essay on “Duties of Children” or “Duties of Pupils” than on “Duty.”

(b) The hearer or reader. Essays to be read in a public assemblage must be adapted to the audience in both subject and matter.

2. *Collect the material.* When you have selected the subject, jot down all you know about it. Then surround it with questions. Suppose, for example, your subject is *Modesty*. Ask, What is modesty? How is it manifested? What are its characteristics? How can we tell a modest person? Does modesty forbid all self-esteem? Can it be acquired? Why are modest persons admired? What great men have been noted for modesty? etc.

Think, talk, read about modesty; but especially *think* about it. And think with note-book and pencil in hand. After having collected the material, the next step may be taken.

3. *Arrange the material.* The material that you have gathered may now be arranged somewhat as follows :

MODESTY.

Introduction. Many persons possess some peculiar virtue or vice—frugality, great love of truth—the spendthrift, the vain person—are many noted for modesty?

Nature. Definition—not ignorance of our own merits—nor distrust—a fair and moderate estimate of our ability—a self-esteem below what we deserve—compared with bashfulness—with humility—with conceit—a lovely trait of character—shown in actions and words.

Origin, how obtained, etc. Modesty partly inborn—may be acquired by proper study (“a scholar is always modest”)—by associating

with persons superior to ourselves—by observing those who are not modest, etc.

Effects. It renders the mind susceptible to instruction and good counsel—it prevents jealousy—it attracts, makes friends—it is justly considered as associated with virtue.

Conclusion. This virtue should be cultivated—example of great men—immodesty in word or act always unjustifiable, etc.

4. *Expand the material into a composition.* Express your thoughts in the easiest and most natural way, observing the rules for spelling, capitalizing, punctuation, etc.

5. *Read, criticise, and rewrite, if necessary.* Look at every word to see whether it is used correctly and spelled correctly. See whether every sentence can be analyzed, and whether it is expressed in the best manner, and is punctuated properly. See that the parts are properly connected, that there are no abrupt breaks, etc.

The foregoing directions will be of assistance in preparing written "Debates," answers to "Referred Questions," and "Orations."

EXERCISE.

135. Write essays on the following subjects :

1. Modesty, following the outline given above.
2. Sleep.

Introduction. We are naturally active—require exercise—need rest—compare rest and idleness, etc.

Kinds. Ordinary sleep—dozing, etc.

Cause. Fatigue—exhaustion—disease, etc.

Effects. Strengthens body and mind—prevents utter exhaustion—each morning we are refreshed—troubles forgotten, etc.

Compared with death.

How to obtain sleep. Be industrious—sleep in well-ventilated rooms, in clean beds—be careful about eating and drinking—keep a clear conscience, etc.

3. Anger.

The passions in general. What is anger?—a species of insanity—mental derangement—mental suffering—etymology of "passion," etc.

It produces mortification, humiliation, remorse—causes crime—makes enemies—brings unhappiness—is the source of war.

Our duty—self-control a virtue—"He that is slow to anger," etc.

4. On the Treatment of Animals.

Man's superior organization—labor of animals—does the body require animal food?—animals furnish clothing—is it right to destroy animals?—man should not be cruel—food and rest for working-animals.

5. Habits. 6. Novel-Reading. 7. Sunshine. 8. Irish Character. 9. The First Lie. 10. Make Haste Slowly. 11. Bores. 12. Learn to Say No. 13. White Lies. 14. Politeness. 15. Never Too Late to Learn.

DIALOGUES.

136. As a school-exercise, **Dialogues** may be written in two ways :

1. Each character may be assigned to a different pupil.

When this is done, the pupils representing the different characters will meet ; and each one will write his part of the dialogue.

2. The dialogue may be written by a single pupil, with explanations, remarks, etc., such as are found in magazine stories and novels.

EXERCISE.

137. *The following subjects for dialogues are suggested :*

1. Going to Boarding-School.

Characters : Mrs. Jones, who is inclined to send her daughter away to school ; Mary, her daughter, who is anxious to go ; Aunt Esther, a maiden lady, opposed to schools.

2. The Next Election.

Characters : J. L. L., a Republican ; W. U. H., a Democrat ; E. K. M., an Independent.

3. Country Life *vs.* City Life. 4. Theatre-going. 5. Traveling *vs.* Reading. 6. The Best Magazine. 7. Dialogue between a Dog and a Cat. 8. Conversation between a Boy and his Grandfather. 9. The Owl and the Bat. 10. My School-Books' Quarrel.

138. MISCELLANEOUS SUBJECTS.

1. Electricity.
2. Railroads.
3. Life at Sea.
4. Printing.
5. What We Wear.
6. Elections.
7. London and New York.
8. Paris.
9. Learning a Trade.
10. The Sewing-Machine.
11. Bubbles.
12. Ghosts.
13. A Council of Rats and Mice.
14. The Life of a Lazy Man.
15. The Trials of a Street-Car Conductor.
16. The Engineer's Account of the Last Railroad Accident.
17. What a Blind Man may See.
18. A Baby's Dream.
19. The Steamboat-Pilot.
20. A Lost Child's Story.
21. An Evening Walk with a Grumbler.
22. An Old Man's Advice.
23. The Oldest Inhabitant's Description of —, as He first Saw It.
24. How the Soldier Lost His Arm.
25. The Autobiography of an Old Horse.
26. The Day-Dreams of a Cat.
27. What the Dog Growls about.
28. The Biography of a Rose.
29. The Reminiscences of an Old Tree.
30. A Sheaf of Wheat.
31. A Telephone with a Memory.
32. A Faded Shawl's Tale.
33. The Old Musket's Story.
34. What Shall a Young Man Do?
35. What Shall a Young Woman Do?
36. Visit to a Battle-Field.
37. Woman in Politics.
38. Brains in Business.
39. Planting Trees.
40. A Thousand a Year.
41. I Will.
42. My First Day at School.
43. Signs.
44. His First Mustache.
45. A Stitch in Time Saves Nine.
46. A Country Store.
47. Does the World Owe Me a Living?
48. Cobwebs.
49. The Other Folks.
50. A Christmas Story.
51. Fairy Stories.
52. Robinson Crusoe.
53. Slang Phrases.
54. A Letter from the Man in the Moon.
55. Escape from a Burning Hotel.
56. Search for a Lost Child.
57. Saved from a Wreck.
58. Growth by Conquest.
59. Home Education.
60. The Smoketown Lyceum.
61. Gossip.
62. Mother Hubbard.
63. Socrates.
64. Why?
65. The Boy Who Always Forgot.
66. A Trip Across the Continent.
67. A Trip Across the Continent in 1900.
68. Telephonic Communication with Jupiter.
69. Christmas in the Year 2000.
70. Our Enemies.
71. The Human Countenance.
72. Homes without Hands.
73. Literary Culture.
74. On the Use of Tobacco.
75. What is Good Society?
76. Influence of the Newspaper.
77. Evil Communications Corrupt Good Manners.
78. The Art of Conversation.
79. Cheap Books.
80. A Search for an Honest Man.
81. Do Manners Make the Man?
82. Were the Old Times the Best Times?
83. A Hundred Years Ago.
84. A Hundred Years to Come.

APPENDIX.

A.

SUMMARY OF RULES OF CONSTRUCTION.

[FOR REFERENCE.]

Rule 1. A noun or a pronoun used as the subject of a finite verb, is in the nominative case. (331.)

Rule 2. A noun or a pronoun used independently, is in the nominative case. (332.)

Special Rule 1. A pronoun used independently, is sometimes in the objective case. (332 a.)

Rule 3. A noun or a pronoun used absolutely, is in the nominative case. (334.)

Special Rule 2. A noun or a pronoun used absolutely, is sometimes in the possessive case. (334 a.)

Rule 4. A noun or a pronoun used to modify another by denoting possession, is in the possessive case. (338.)

Rule 5. A noun or a pronoun used as the direct object of a transitive verb or verbal, is in the objective case. (348.)

Special Rule 3. A noun or a pronoun used as the cognate object of a transitive verb or verbal, is in the objective case. (348 b.)

Rule 6. A noun or a pronoun used as the indirect object of a verb, a verbal, an adjective, or an adverb, is in the objective case. (349.)

Rule 7. A noun or a pronoun used as the adverbial object of a verb, a verbal, an adjective, or an adverb, is in the objective case. (350.)

Rule 8. A noun or a pronoun used as the object of a preposition, is in the objective case. (351.)

Rule 9. A noun or a pronoun used in predication or apposition with another in the nominative or the objective case, agrees with it in case. (355.)

Rule 10. A noun or a pronoun used in predication or apposition with another in the possessive case, is in the nominative case. (356.)

Special Rule 4. A noun or a pronoun used in apposition with another in the possessive case, sometimes agrees with it in case. (356 a.)

Special Rule 5. A noun or a pronoun used in apposition to modify a word or a combination of words not used as a noun, is in the nominative case. (356 b.)

Rule 11. A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in gender, person, and number. (359.)

Special Rule 6. A pronoun having two or more antecedents representing the same person or thing, is in the singular number; if they represent different persons or things, it is in the plural number. If the antecedents differ in person, it prefers the first person to the second, and the second to the third. If one is in the masculine or the feminine gender, and the other is in the neuter, the gender of the pronoun is indefinite. (359 a.)

Rule 12. A subordinate conjunctive is used to introduce a clause, and join it to the word that the clause modifies. (371.)

Special Rule 7. A subordinate conjunctive is sometimes used simply to introduce a clause. (371 a.)

Rule 13. A finite verb agrees with its subject in person and number. (440.)

Special Rule 8. A finite verb having two or more subjects joined by "and" and differing in person, prefers the first person to the second, and the second to the third. (440 a.)

Special Rule 9. A finite verb having two or more subjects joined by "or" or "nor," agrees with the subject next the verb in person and number. (440 b.)

Special Rule 10. A finite verb having two or more subjects joined by "and" and not modified by "no," "each," "every," or a similar adjective, is in the plural number if they denote different persons or things. (440 c.)

Special Rule 11. A finite verb having two or more singular subjects representing the same person or thing, or modified by "no," "each," "every," or a similar adjective, is in the singular number. (440 d.)

Rule 14. A non-finite verb does not change its form to agree with its subject in person and number. (441.)

Rule 15. An adjective is used to modify a noun or a pronoun. (480.)

Special Rule 12. An adjective is sometimes used absolutely, as the complement of a verbal. (480 a.)

Rule 16. An adverb is used to modify a verb, a verbal, an adjective, or another adverb. (495.)

Special Rule 13. An adverb is sometimes used to modify a noun, a pronoun, a phrase, a clause, or a sentence. (495 *a.*)

Special Rule 14. The adverb *there* is sometimes used simply to change the relative position of the subject and predicate of a proposition. (495 *b.*)

Special Rule 15. An adverb is sometimes used independently. (495 *c.*)

Special Rule 16. A verbal is sometimes used independently. (532 *c.*)

Rule 17. A preposition is used to introduce a phrase, and join it to the word that the phrase modifies. (544.)

Special Rule 17. A preposition is sometimes used simply to introduce a phrase. (544 *a.*)

Rule 18. A co-ordinate conjunction is used to join sentences, or parts of a sentence that have the same construction. (559.)

Special Rule 18. A co-ordinate conjunction is sometimes used simply to introduce a sentence. (559 *a.*)

Special Rule 19. The co-ordinate conjunction *or* is sometimes used to join an appositive noun to the word that it modifies. (559 *b.*)

Special Rule 20. The subordinate conjunction *as* is sometimes used to introduce a word or a phrase. (560 *b.*)

Rule 19. A responsive is used independently. (568.)

Rule 20. An interjection is used independently. (572.)

B.

ABBREVIATIONS IN COMMON USE.

Titles.

Mr., Mister.
Messrs., Messieurs (Fr. pl.).
Esq., Esquire.
Mrs. (pro. *Misses*), Mistress.
D. D., Doctor of Divinity.
LL. D.,¹ Doctor of Laws.
Dr., Doctor.
M. D., Doctor of Medicine.
D. D. S., Doctor of Dental Surgery.
Ph. D., Doctor of Philosophy.
M. S., Master of Science.
B. A., Bachelor of Arts.
A. M. or *M. A.*, Master of Arts.

Hon., Honorable.
Rev., Reverend.
Pres., President.
Gov., Governor.
Prof., Professor.
Gen., General.
Col., Colonel.
Maj., Major.
Capt., Captain.
Lt. or *Lieut.*, Lieutenant.
P. M., Postmaster.
Sr., Senior.
Jr., Junior.

1. Do not write "*L. L. D.*"

Common Names.

<i>Benj.</i> , Benjamin.	<i>Geo.</i> , George.	<i>Jos.</i> , Joseph.
<i>Chas.</i> , Charles.	<i>Jas.</i> , James.	<i>Thos.</i> , Thomas.
<i>Edw.</i> , Edward.	<i>Jno.</i> , John.	<i>Wm.</i> , William.

Chronological Abbreviations.

<i>H.</i> , hour.	<i>Fri.</i> , Friday.	<i>Ja.</i> , ¹ June.
<i>Min.</i> , minute.	<i>Sat.</i> , Saturday.	<i>Jy.</i> , ¹ July.
<i>Sec.</i> , second.	—	<i>Aug.</i> , August.
<i>A. M.</i> , forenoon.	<i>Mo.</i> , month.	<i>Sept.</i> , September.
<i>P. M.</i> , afternoon.	<i>Ult.</i> , last month.	<i>Oct.</i> , October.
<i>M.</i> , noon.	<i>Inst.</i> , this month.	<i>Nov.</i> , November.
<i>D.</i> , day.	<i>Prox.</i> , next month.	<i>Dec.</i> , December.
—	—	—
<i>Sun.</i> , Sunday.	<i>Jan.</i> , January.	<i>Yr.</i> , year.
<i>Mon.</i> , Monday.	<i>Feb.</i> , February.	<i>Cent.</i> , century.
<i>Tues.</i> , Tuesday.	<i>Mar.</i> , March.	<i>B. C.</i> , before Christ.
<i>Wed.</i> , Wednesday.	<i>Apr.</i> , April.	<i>A. D.</i> , in the year of
<i>Thurs.</i> , Thursday.	—, May. ¹	our Lord.

1. As a rule, words of four letters or less should not be abbreviated.

Business Abbreviations.

<i>Acct.</i> , account.	<i>Co.</i> , company.	<i>Dr.</i> , debit, debtor.
<i>Am't.</i> , amount.	<i>C. O. D.</i> , collect on	<i>Dos.</i> , dozen.
<i>Ans.</i> , answer.	delivery.	<i>Each.</i> , each.
<i>Bal.</i> , balance.	<i>Cr.</i> , credit, creditor.	<i>Rec'd.</i> , received.

For the abbreviations of names of States, places, etc., see a text-book on geography. See also tables of denominate numbers in arithmetic.

C.

ETYMOLOGY OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS.

[L. = Latin ; Gr. = Greek ; Fr. = French.]

Abridged, Fr. <i>abrégé</i> , to shorten, from L. <i>abbreviare</i> , from <i>ab</i> , from, and <i>brevis</i> , to shorten, from <i>brevis</i> , short.	Adjunct, L. <i>adjunctus</i> , from <i>ad</i> and <i>ungere</i> , to join.
Active, L. <i>activus</i> , from <i>agere</i> , to put in motion.	Adverb, L. <i>adverbium</i> , from <i>ad</i> and <i>verbum</i> , word, verb.
Adjective, L. <i>adjectivum</i> , from <i>ad</i> , to, and <i>jacere</i> , to throw.	Analysis, Gr. <i>analusis</i> , from <i>ana</i> , again, and <i>luo</i> , to loose.
	Antecedent, L. <i>antecedens</i> , from <i>ante</i> , before, and <i>cedere</i> , to go.

- Apposition**, L. *appositio*, from *ad* and *ponere*, to place.
- Auxiliary**, L. *auxiliaris*, from *auxilium*, help, aid.
- Case**, L. *casus*, from *cadere*, to fall, happen.
- Clause**, L. *clausa*, from *claudere*, to shut.
- Comparison**, L. *comparatio*, from *con*, together or with, and *par*, equal.
- Complement**, L. *complementum*, from *con* and *plere*, to fill.
- Complete**, L. *con* and *plere*.
- Complex**, L. *complexus*, from *con* and *plectere*, to twist.
- Compound**, L. *componere*, from *con* and *ponere*, to put.
- Conjugation**, L. *conjugatio*, from *con* and *jugare*, to join.
- Conjunction**, L. *conjunctio*, from *con* and *jungere*, to join.
- Conjunctive**, L. *conjunctivus*, from *con* and *jungere*.
- Co-ordinate**, L. *con* and *ordinatus*, from *ordinare*, to regulate.
- Declension**, L. *declinatio*, from *de*, down, and *clinare*, to lean.
- Ellipsis**, Gr. *elleipsis*, from *en*, in, and *leipein*, to leave.
- Etymology**, Gr. *etymon*, the true sense of a word, and *logos*, discourse.
- Feminine**, L. *femininus*, from *femina*, woman.
- Finite**, L. *finitus*, p. p. of *finire*, to limit.
- Gender**, L. *genus*, *generis*, race, kind.
- Grammar**, Gr. *gramma*, letter.
- Imperative**, L. *imperativus*, from *imperare*, to command.
- Indicative**, L. *indicativus*, from *indicare*, to proclaim.
- Infinitive**, L. *infinitivus*, from *in*, not, and *finire*.
- Inflection**, L. *inflectio*, from *in* and *flectere*, to bend.
- Interjection**, L. *interjectio*, from *inter*, between, and *jacere*.
- Intransitive**, L. *intransitivus*, from *in* and *transitivus*.
- Language**, L. *lingua*, the tongue.
- Masculine**, L. *masculinus*, from *masculus*, male.
- Mood**, Fr. *mode*, from L. *modus*, manner.
- Neuter**, L. *neuter*, neither.
- Nominative**, L. *nominativus*, from *nomen*, name.
- Noun**, L. *nomen*, name.
- Number**, Fr. *nombre*, from L. *numerus*, number.
- Object**, L. *objectus*, from *ob*, against, and *jacere*.
- Objective**, L. *objectivus*. See *Object*.
- Parse**, L. *pars*, a part.
- Participle**, L. *participium*, from *pars* and *capere*, to take.
- Passive**, L. *passivus*, from *patis*, *passus*, to suffer.
- Person**, L. *persona*, a person.
- Phrase**, Gr. *phrasis*, from *phrazein*, to speak.
- Pleonasm**, Gr. *pleonasmus*, from *pleonazein*, to be more than enough.
- Plural**, L. *pluralis*, from *plus*, *pluris*, more.
- Possessive**, L. *possessivus*, from *possidere*, to possess.
- Potential**, L. *potentialis*, from *potens*, p. p. of *posse*, to be able.
- Predicate**, L. *prædicatum*, from *præ*, and *dicare*, to proclaim.
- Preposition**, L. *præpositio*, from *præ*, and *ponere*, to put.
- Pronoun**, L. *pronomen*, from *pro* and *nomen*.
- Proposition**, L. *propositio*, from *pro*, and *ponere*.
- Regular**, L. *regula*, a rule.
- Relative**, L. *relativus*, from *re*, again, and *ferre*, *latum*, to bear.
- Responsive**, L. *responsivus*, from *re* and *pondere*, to promise.
- Sentence**, L. *sententia*, from *sentire*, to think.

Simple , L. <i>simplex</i> , from <i>semel</i> , once, and <i>plicare</i> , to fold.	Synthesis , Gr. <i>synthesis</i> , from <i>sun</i> , and <i>tithenai</i> , to place.
Subject , L. <i>subjectus</i> , from <i>sub</i> , under, and <i>jacere</i> .	Tense , Fr. <i>tempe</i> , from L. <i>tempus</i> , time.
Subjective , L. <i>subjectivus</i> . See <i>Subject</i> .	Transitive , L. <i>transitivus</i> , from <i>trans</i> , across, over, and <i>ire</i> , <i>itum</i> , to go.
Subjunctive , L. <i>subjunctivus</i> , from <i>sub</i> and <i>jungere</i> .	Verb , L. <i>verbum</i> , a word.
Subordinate , L. <i>sub</i> and <i>ordinatus</i> .	Verbal , L. <i>verbalis</i> , from <i>verbum</i> .
Syntax , Gr. <i>suntaxis</i> , from <i>sun</i> , with, and <i>tassein</i> , to put in order.	Voice , Fr. <i>voix</i> , from L. <i>vox</i> , <i>voeis</i> , voice.

D.

NOTES.

Note 1. Page 61.—The great importance of the position of words in English is strikingly seen by comparing the Latin "Johannes et Carolus Guilielmum audiverunt," with the same words in English. The Latin words can have but one meaning, no matter how they are arranged; but in English the words may be arranged to make six different statements: "John and Charles heard William;" "John and William heard Charles;" "Charles and William heard John;" "John heard Charles and William;" "Charles heard John and William;" "William heard John and Charles."

Note 2. Page 72.—The number of properties of a part of speech is determined by the number of variations in form which it undergoes. Sometimes, however, a word varies in use but not in form; as, "one *sheep*," "ten *sheep*;" "I saw *James*," "*James* saw me;" "I *shall go*," "*we shall go*," etc. In such instances the property of a word is determined by its use. In other cases the property may be told by the form as well as the use. Thus *me* is always said to be in the objective case, *his* and *Henry's* possessive, *I* nominative, etc. The failure to make the form correspond to the use gives rise to one of the chief classes of errors which it is within the province of the grammarian to correct.

Sometimes good usage sanctions a form which does not correspond to the variation in use, and then the name given to the property is determined by the variation in form; as, "*His* being an Englishman," etc. Such constructions are generally explained by "special rules."

Note 3. Page 126.—The potential mood can be dispensed with by regarding the auxiliaries as principal verbs in the indicative or the subjunctive mood, and the principal verbs as infinitives, depending upon them. Thus, in "I can go," *can* may be said to be in the indicative mood, and *go* a verbal noun depending upon *can*. This method of disposing of compound verbs would in most cases explain the original significance of the words that form

them. It is the method suggested by some leading grammarians. But although most of the words of these groups retain to a certain extent their earlier meaning, and can be construed separately, the signification of the verb-phrases differs from that of the words combined to form the phrase. It is therefore thought best, both for this reason and on account of its simplicity, to retain the potential mood. It must be remembered, however, that there are objections to its use, and that it can be dispensed with in the manner indicated above.

Note 4. Page 163.—The conjunctive adverb is frequently incorrectly defined as “connecting two clauses and modifying a word in each clause.” The conjunctive adverb *modifies a word in its own clause* (i. e., the clause that it introduces), and *joins the clause to the word that the clause modifies*. Thus, in the sentence, “The tree lies where it fell,” the adverb *where* modifies *fell*; and the clause *where it fell* modifies *lies*, to which it is joined by *where*. So also, “I know where it lies,” in which *know* is not modified adverbially.

Note 5. Page 167.—To distinguish between the non-finite verb and the verbal is sometimes very difficult, if not impossible—

1. Because the infinitive and participial forms may be used to express all the various shades of thought lying between direct predication and simple modification, and consequently many terms will be found on the border-line between the two extremes.

2. Because many speakers and writers do not have a clear conception of the proper use of these flexible words, and consequently they are frequently used loosely or indefinitely, and not seldom wholly misused.

E.

SPECIAL SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS.

Sug. 1. The “Inductive Lessons” are to be used by both teacher and pupils. Pupils should go over each lesson before studying the remarks that follow it. The teacher may have the pupils answer the questions of the inductive lesson with the book open before them, or he may have the examples with which the lesson begins written on the blackboard, and have the questions answered with books closed. He should ask additional questions whenever it is necessary to do so. The inductive lesson for any subject may often be profitably given at the close of the recitation period on the day preceding the one on which the subject is to be studied.

When “examples” are given in the “Inductive Lessons,” they will not, as a rule, be repeated with the definitions.

Sug. 2. The teacher should make constant use of the school reader and other text-books, in teaching grammar.

Sug. 3. See Sug. 4, p. vi. Paragraphs marked with *italic letters*, as (a), (b), (c), etc., belong to the *second course*. They may be read by pupils studying the first course, but should not be recited by them. Advanced pupils should not omit any part of the book.

Sug. 4. Among the commonest errors in the use of language are *improper contractions* and *wrong pronunciations* of words. Unaccented syllables and unemphatic words are frequently mispronounced or entirely omitted by many persons. Thus we often hear, "Wairzey goin'!" "Iken go." "Wilfer can," etc.

The following conversation was held by two boys:

"Wairjergo lasnight!" "Skat'n." "Jerdine th'ice hard'n' good?" "Hard'nough." "Jergoerlone!" "No; Bill'n' Joe werlong." "How late jerstay!" "Pastato."

Let the teacher closely watch the every-day speech of his pupils, and allow them to use *no improper contractions*.

Sug. 5. Exercises in supplying omitted words are of great value. Dwell upon such exercises, selected from the school reader, etc., until pupils can readily supply the words necessary to complete the sense.

Sug. 6. The "original sentences" of the review exercises (sec 91 and 215) may be given orally or in writing, as the teacher prefers. It is not necessary to state that the remarks to be illustrated by the pupils include only those that can be illustrated with sentences, and not such remarks as 22, 72, 73, 93, etc.

Sug. 7. When Part I is completed, begin Part V, "Elements of Composition." Take at least one day each week from the study of technical grammar, and devote it to the study of Part V. The author's opinion is that two days would be better than one. Do not begin Part IV before the following subjects in Part V are studied: "Rules for Capital Letters;" "Punctuation;" "Use of Words;" and "Use of Sentences." "Paragraphs," "Letter-writing," etc., may, however, be studied before Part IV is begun.

Sug. 8. In many of the exercises in Part II, there are sentences marked with *black figures* (as the first and third sentences in Exercise 109). These sentences should be *committed to memory* and *recited orally* by the pupils. This special feature of the work is an important part of the course in the "Elements of Composition," and should not be neglected.

Sentences previously committed should be reviewed frequently. The name of the author of the sentence should generally be given. These reviews may occasionally be written, and the pupils should then punctuate the sentences properly.

Pupils should be trained, *from the beginning*, to prepare their written work neatly. They will soon *form the habit* of doing so, if they are properly taught, and their work will become a pleasure. Much of the time devoted to analysis should be given to *written* analysis. Sentences should be analyzed out of class on slate or paper, and brought to class for criticism. The black-

board can be used as freely and as advantageously in the grammar class as in the arithmetic class.

Sug. 9. In preparing the "copying exercises," pupils may select sentences from any source except the text-book on grammar. Other text-books, the Bible, newspapers, etc., may be used. Encourage pupils to select sentences containing beautiful thoughts, important facts in history, geography, science, etc. Sentences, not parts of sentences, should be copied. The name of the author, or the book or paper from which the sentence is taken, may be given. Punctuation-marks should be copied, and capital letters should be correctly used. These exercises may occasionally be prepared in the form of letters to the teacher.

Sug. 10. Written parsing may be prepared out of class on slate or paper, and brought to class for criticism. Use the blackboard. Do not allow pupils to say "nominative" for *nominative*, "singular" for *singular*, "it's a pronoun" for *it is a pronoun*, "it's neuter gender" for *it is in the neuter gender*, "a verb agrees with its subject" for *a finite verb*, etc., "Mary's a noun, proper," for *Mary is a proper noun*, etc. *It is worse than a waste of time to require pupils to state or refer to the rules of construction in parsing.* Do not make parsing the end of the study of grammar.

Sug. 11. The language of the pupils should be constantly watched, and their errors of speech corrected. Pupils should be encouraged to notice one another's speech, for the purpose of detecting the errors made by their associates. Lessons may profitably be given on the mistakes made on the school-grounds, in the neighborhood, in the newspapers, etc.

Sug. 12. In reciting the principal parts, let the pupils mention the present participle before the perfect participle, and the present infinitive after it, thus:

Present indicative, *abide*; past indicative, *abode*; present participle, *abiding*; perfect participle, *abode*; present infinitive, *to abide*.

When the principal parts of irregular verbs are learned, the principal parts of all verbs will be known, as other verbs are regular.

In the first course, let the pupils learn the principal parts of the verbs in 387 and 388. *Give special attention to the first six verbs in 387: raise, rise, lie (to recline), lay, set, sit.*

Sug. 13. Pupils taking the "First Course" (see p. vi, Sug. 4), may read the rules and remarks in the "Introduction," explain the examples, and prepare the exercises. On review, the rules and remarks should be studied and recited.

Sug. 14. Select from the lists of subjects given in this work, those that are suitable for the pupils. Add to these, or *substitute for them*, such subjects as come within the experience of the pupils. *Get them to write about what they are interested in, to narrate what they actually did, to describe what they actually saw*, etc. In the historical and Biblical subjects, aid them by giving them books to read.

It may be necessary to omit some of the topics. If so, select those that will be of most value to the pupils, such as *Letter-Writing, Business-Papers, Narratives, and Descriptions*. Many pupils will find it profitable to devote a school-term to the writing of *Sentences, Paragraphs, Letters, and Business-Papers*.

Your first object should be to have pupils write sentences that are correct in every respect. Never permit any careless work. See that pupils write sentences for the sake of the thought to be expressed. Remember that written language is the *written expression of thought*. Require your pupils to practice writing their thoughts. Let them occasionally hold written conversations with their school-mates, in order to teach them to write naturally.

Sug. 15. Call the attention of the pupils to the paragraphs in the reading-lesson, history-lesson, etc., and lead them to see the reason for the division.

Events of interest frequently occur in the neighborhood of the school, and these furnish the best subjects possible for composition. Add to the foregoing list as many topics as are needed to enable pupils to write paragraphs readily and well. *Give pupils every opportunity to describe real occurrences.* See Suggestion 14.

Sug. 16. The arrangement, punctuation, capitalizing, etc., of every part of a letter, should be fully illustrated on the blackboard. Models of the different parts should be put on the blackboard for the pupils to copy.

Exercises should be given from time to time throughout the school-year to develop the pupil's ability to express his thoughts in the form of letters. Always keep in mind that letter-writing is the most generally practiced, and to nearly all persons the most important, of all kinds of written composition.

Sug. 17. Add to the exercises in Business-Papers, so that pupils may become familiar with the forms. Explain the use of these papers.

Sug. 18. Besides diaries that record the actual events in the life of the person who keeps them, imaginary diaries and journals may be kept by the pupils. The teacher will here find a great variety of simple, interesting, and profitable subjects for all grades of pupils.

F.

SUGGESTIONS FOR COMPOSITION CLASSES.

1. Copying Compositions.

The composition should first be written on slate or paper, and all the errors the writer can find in it should be corrected. It may then be copied according to the following directions:

1. *Paper.*—Use letter-paper (size, about 8 by 10 inches), if convenient.

2. *Subject*.—Write the subject in the middle of the first line. Every important word in the subject should begin with a capital letter.

Leave a blank-line below the subject.

3. *Margin*.—Leave a margin of an inch on the left-hand side of each page if letter-paper be used, or three quarters of an inch, if note-paper be used.

In writing letters, leave only a very narrow margin.

4. *Paragraphing*.—Begin each paragraph an inch, or three quarters of an inch, to the right of the marginal line.

5. *Signature*.—Write the signature on the next line below the end of the composition, near the right-hand edge of the paper.

6. *Place and Date*.—Write the name of the place and the date on the next line below the signature, near the left-hand edge.

7. *Folding*.—Fold the paper so that the width when folded will be equal to one third of the length of the sheet.

8. *Indorsement*.—Write the name across the upper end, on the upper fold, an inch from the top. Write the subject about half an inch below the name, and the date about half an inch below the subject.

The indorsement will be on the back of the upper left-hand corner of the composition when it is opened.

General Direction.—Use ink, if possible. Prepare your compositions with neatness and accuracy. If the composition is more than three pages long, take a new sheet, or half-sheet.

2. Correcting Compositions.

The teacher should examine every composition carefully, and indicate in the margin the position and nature of the mistakes made. The pupil should then correct the errors with lead-pencil, and return the composition to the teacher for a second examination. Any mark not understood by the pupil should be explained to him. If too many mistakes are made, the composition should be rewritten. Occasionally, pupils may be allowed to correct one another's compositions.

Care should be taken by the teacher—

1. Not to criticise compositions too severely. He should remember that the great object to be attained by the pupil is the *free written expression of thought*.

2. To see that the pupils understand the meaning of the criticisms made by him.

SYSTEM OF MARKING.

The following abbreviations will be found of service in correcting compositions. They should be written in the margin opposite the error. A line may be drawn under the word that is wrong, though it is frequently best simply to indicate the error in the margin, and allow the pupil to find it for

himself. General corrections or comments may be made below the composition.

O, error in Orthography.

G, error in Grammar.

C, error in Capital Letter.

P, error in Punctuation.

W, error in use of Word; *Ww*, wrong word; *Wo*, word omitted; *Wr*, word repeated, etc.

S, error in Sentence; *Sl*, sentence too long; *SS*, sentence too short, etc.

F, error in Figure.

Par, error in Paragraphing.

E, error (nature of error not indicated).

I, to be inquired about.

Other abbreviations may be used, or part of the foregoing may be omitted, at the discretion of the teacher.

3. Reading Compositions.

When compositions have been corrected, they may be read before the class or school. As a rule, each pupil should read his own composition. Criticisms from the other pupils as to the matter of the composition, manner of reading, etc., may be given.

The following devices may add interest to the composition exercises:

1. Intersperse the exercises with recitations, dialogues, etc.
2. Appoint an editor, and have him prepare and read a paper containing news items, amusing incidents, poetry, etc.
3. The school may be resolved into a literary society, with regular officers, and a programme of exercises, consisting of orations, essays, recitations, answering of referred questions, a debate, reading of a paper, giving "sentiments,"¹ critic's remarks, etc. Let the teacher take part in the exercises. The officers may be elected by ballot, if preferred. The teacher should, however, assign the duties to be performed.

1. A "sentiment" should be a selection of poetry or prose from a standard author. It should teach a moral lesson. *Let the teacher daily write upon the black-board a choice selection for the pupils to copy and commit.*

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